

# HIGHROADS OF GEOGRAPHY

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THOMAS NELSON AND SONS

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**Outside the Bull Ring.**

*From the picture by P. Legrand.*

(Exhibited in the Salon of the Société des Artistes Français, 1912.)

# Highroads of Geography

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Axentowicz, W. Logsdail,  
Stanhope Forbes, &c.*

## Book IV.—The Continent of Europe

By HILAIRE BELLOC, JOHN BUCHAN, D. S. MELDRUM,  
S. A. GILLON, HON. MAURICE BARING, G. F. ABBOTT,  
MISS EDITH DURHAM, RICHARD BAGOT, and GEORGE  
SANDEMAN. Edited by Sir EDWARD PARROTT, LL.D.

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## The New Europe.

The Great War of 1914 has left deep marks upon the geography of Europe as well as upon its history. The chapters of this book which describe its surface, its cities, and its peoples are, of course, still true, but some of its finest towns and buildings have been destroyed, and many square miles of its most fertile lands devastated by the hostile armies. These changes are but for a time; with the patient labour of the people new houses and churches will arise from the ruins of the old, and nature will again clothe with verdure the scarred surface of the battlefields.

There are other changes which will remain, and which make the map of the new Europe very different from that of the old. When Great Britain and her allies had won their dearly-bought victory, and brought to nought the schemes of the Central Powers, they thought it just and necessary to make many changes in the boundaries of those countries, in order to safeguard the freedom of Europe. They decided that Germany must restore the provinces she had wrested at various times from France, Denmark, and the former nation of Poland; that the peoples which had been subjected to the rule of Austria must have their independence restored; and that these and the Balkan States must be divided according to the nationality of their inhabitants, and not by each state annexing as much territory as it could conquer and hold.

Three new countries now appear on the map of Europe. Poland has been restored, and the provinces which were seized by Prussia, Austria, and Russia respectively, in the latter part of the eighteenth century, once more form an independent nation under a republican government of its own, with Warsaw as its capital. To the south of Poland another new republic has arisen. The Slav peoples of Bohemia and Moravia, with parts of Austrian



Silesia and Galicia, have been granted their independence. This new state, Czecho-Slovakia, has as its capital the ancient Czech city of Prague. In the south-west of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire the Southern Slav peoples of Bosnia, Slavonia, and the adjoining provinces have joined themselves with Serbia and Montenegro to form the new state of Yugo-Slavia, or the country of the Southern Slavs. There is really a fourth new country to mention—namely, Iceland. This island, which was formerly a Danish possession, claimed and peacefully obtained its independence in 1918, but retains as its sovereign the King of Denmark. This change, however, is not directly due to the war.

When reading the various chapters of this book, therefore, we must take note of the following changes which have been made in the political frontiers.

### **France** (*Lessons 7-12*).

“La Belle France” suffered more widespread devastation than any other country. In Flanders, the Somme valley, and Champagne the war zone was left a desert, and much of its former beauty has disappeared, at least for some years to come. Even Paris suffered from air raids and from the shells fired from “Big Bertha” over seventy miles away. But the chief material loss of France was in the mining and manufacturing districts of the north. As some compensation for this the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, torn from her in 1871, were restored, and the Rhine once more became the boundary between her and Germany. In addition, the Saar coal-mining district was handed over to France for a period of fifteen years, after which a plebiscite of the inhabitants of the district will decide its future ownership.

### **Belgium** (*Lesson 21*).

This gallant little nation threw herself in the way of the invading German hosts, and by delaying their irresistible progress rendered a priceless service to Europe. For the suffering and loss endured during the years of German occupation compensation has



been or will be made; and, in addition, two small districts of some importance to Belgium, at Moresnet and Malmédy, have been added to her area.

### Germany (*Lessons 15-18*).

As the rulers of Germany were responsible for the war, it is natural and just that the German nation should share in the loss it entailed. The defeat of the German armies forced the



THE LOST PROVINCES OF GERMANY.

abdication of the Emperor, a republican government taking his place, and a similar change was made in the various states which formed the empire. The losses in territory were extensive when the ill-gotten gains of more than a century had to be surrendered. On the west, as has been said, Alsace and Lorraine were restored to France, and the Saar coalfield ceded for a period of fifteen years, and Moresnet and Malmédy were given up to Belgium. In the

north, the allocation of Schleswig-Holstein, taken from Denmark in 1864, was decided by plebiscite, when the northern part of Schleswig was restored to Denmark, but the southern portion, with a large German element in its population, elected to remain part of Germany.

On the east, the new republic of Poland received the Polish provinces which were reft from the ancient kingdom of Poland in 1772 and 1793. Poland was granted an outlet to the Baltic near Danzig, while the city of Danzig, with its mixed population, was erected into a free state. East Prussia is thus separated from the rest of Germany, and in its southern portion a plebiscite will determine whether that part shall become Polish or remain German territory. In southern Silesia, also, there are two areas to be allocated by plebiscite—the one to become either Polish or German, and the

other to join either Poland or Czecho-Slovakia. Germany has thus lost a very large extent of territory, with a population of over 8,000,000. We must also note that the war has entirely changed the system of her military and naval organization. Her army and navy will no longer constitute a danger to the freedom of her neighbours.



THE RESTORED POLAND.

## Poland.

The new republic of Poland, with Warsaw as its capital, includes not only the provinces which had been annexed by Germany, but also Russian Poland (*Lesson 25*) and part of Galicia, which had been seized by Russia and Austria respectively.

**Russia** (*Lessons 25-27*).

When war broke out Russia was the main hope of the Allies, with its unlimited supply of men and of food. But the terrible mismanagement of its affairs made the heroism of its soldiers a useless sacrifice. A revolution took place, and the military resistance of the country was soon broken down by Germany. The vast empire fell into a state of disorder and confusion, no regularly elected government proving strong enough to guide its affairs. Gradually it broke up into a number of separate states. Of these the most stable and most likely to continue are Finland, in the north; Esthonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, on the Baltic; White Russia, with Minsk as its capital, in the centre; and in the south the Ukraine, including most of Little Russia, with Kiev as its capital, and the land of the Don Cossacks. But the final settlement of governments and frontiers in the former Russian Empire is not yet in sight.

**Austria=Hungary** (*Lessons 28, 29*).

The Austro-Hungarian Empire, the accomplice of Germany in originating the Great War, has suffered still more than the latter from its results. As an empire it has ceased to exist. The shock of military defeat naturally led to the separation of Austria from Hungary. The Slavs of the north—Bohemia, Moravia, and the adjoining districts—combined to form one state, Czecho-Slovakia, with its historic capital at Prague. Part of Galicia was assigned to Poland and part to the Ukraine, according to the predominant race of its inhabitants. In the south the Slav populations combined with their kindred in Serbia and Montenegro to form the large new state of Yugo-Slavia. Transylvania, in the south-east, was added to our ally Rumania. And in the south-west the Italian-speaking districts of the Trentino and the Tyrol, with the city of Trieste, were allocated to Italy. The neighbouring city of Fiume, with its mixed population, was, like Danzig, formed into a separate state. Austria has thus been reduced to its original condition of a small German-speaking territory without a sea-coast, and Hungary has suffered a similar fate.

**Italy** (*Lessons 33-36*).

Besides the extension of her boundaries towards the north, which has freed "Italia irredenta," or unredeemed Italy, from the dominion of Austria, there are certain islands, ports, and parts of the seaboard on the Dalmatian coast of the Adriatic to which



THE DIVISIONS OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

Italy has a claim, in order to safeguard her naval supremacy in that inland sea. The state of Albania and the port of Valona are of special importance in this respect.

**Rumania** (*Lesson 31*).

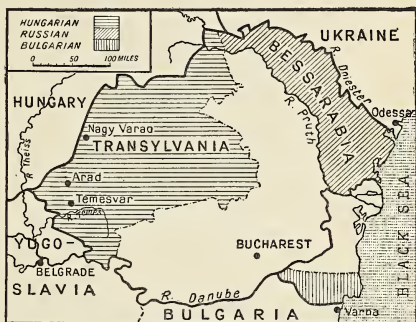
Rumania, one of our allies in the Great War, which suffered much loss from the enemy occupation of its rich territory, had its area more than doubled by the changes which followed. On the east it received Bessarabia, a district inhabited by a kindred people,



which had long been under Russian rule, the river Dniester being fixed as its new boundary. On the north-west, beyond the mountain ridge of the Carpathians and the Transylvanian Alps, the still larger district of Transylvania, as already mentioned, was taken over from Hungary.

### Bulgaria (*Lesson 31*).

Bulgaria suffered less than it deserved in view of the treachery and greed of its late ruler. In the south, however, it lost the Thracian territory which gave it access to the Ægean Sea. This is now assigned to Greece, with the condition that Bulgaria is to have special facilities for trade through the port of Dedeagatch. Otherwise the boundaries of Bulgaria are almost unchanged.



RUMANIA'S NEW TERRITORIES.



THE NEW YUGO-SLAVIA.

### Serbia (*Lesson 31*).

This martyr state, which in spite of its splendid heroism endured the blackest horrors of defeat, has now been merged into the great new nation of the Southern Slavs, Yugo-Slavia. This state, as has been mentioned, includes the Slav provinces formerly under Austro-Hungarian rule — Bosnia, Herzegovina, Croatia, Slavonia, and others—as well as the gallant

little mountain kingdom of Montenegro. As the leading member of this union of kindred states, the future of Serbia promises to be worthy of its historic past.

### Turkey (*Lesson 30*).

This "dwindling empire," by its support of the Central Powers, was involved in the ruin of their fall, and has now all but vanished from the map of Europe. The city of Constantinople and a small area adjoining still remain to the Sultan, but his empire is now restricted to Asia, where it really belongs, and even there it is

seriously diminished in extent. Thrace, which formed the major part of European Turkey, as well as part of Macedonia, to the north of the Ægean Sea, has been joined to Greece, as in ancient times.



GREATER GREECE.

### Greece (*Lesson 32*).

Greece, after ridding herself of her pro-German king and his German queen, was a useful ally in the later stages of the war, and has gained much thereby. Southern Macedonia and Thrace, as already mentioned, have fallen to her share, and also certain parts of Asia Minor, yet to be determined, where the population on the seaboard is predominantly Greek. In the Macedonian port of Salonika, however, she must grant to Yugo-Slavia special facilities for trade with the Ægean Sea.

# The Continent of Europe.

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## I. THE DAUGHTER OF ASIA.

1. Last year we studied England and Wales—the land of the English and the Welsh. This year we will go further afield. There is an old saying that “home-keeping youths have ever homely wits.” To rid ourselves of this reproach we must travel. We will travel on “the Continent”—that is, on the continent of Europe—and see something of our neighbours beyond “the narrow seas.”

2. Travel is now cheap, swift, and easy, and thousands of Britons, even those who are not wealthy, make a journey abroad every year. In the days before railways and steamships, foreign travel was costly, slow, and difficult. Even then, no gentleman's education was thought to be complete unless he had made what was called “the grand tour” of Europe. In this book *we* are going to make the “grand tour.”

3. Now, before we set out, we must make certain preparations. It is not enough for us to take our tickets and pack our bags; we must prepare our minds, if we

are to take full advantage of our tour. Like wise people we will turn to a map of Europe, and take a broad, general view of the continent before leaving our own shores.

4. I have spoken of the *continent* of Europe. The word "continent" comes to us from two Latin words which mean "held together," or "all in one piece." The continents, as you know, are the great masses of continuous land on the earth's surface. This land we divide into the following continents: Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, and Australia.

5. If you examine a map of the Old World, you will see at once that, according to our definition, Europe is not a continent at all. It is really part of a continent—the western part of that great land mass of the Old World known as Eurasia. Europe and Asia are continuous: the one merges into the other; there is no well-marked boundary to show where Europe ends and Asia begins. Because of this the ancients spoke of Europe as the "Daughter of Asia."

6. Find the great country of Russia in Europe. Along its eastern side you will see a long line of highlands marked "Ural Mountains." These seem to form a natural boundary to Europe on the east. They are, however, far too low for such a purpose. They rise very gradually from the plains of Russia, and the train easily crosses them. As you approach them they do not appear to be hills at all. South of them you see a wide stretch of flat country across which hordes of invaders have frequently made their way from Asia into Europe.

7. Europe is continuous with Asia for more than 2,400



miles. Why, then, do we speak of it as a continent? The term was applied to it ages ago, when men knew very little about geography; and, since that time, Europe has become so strikingly different from Asia that there is good reason why we should continue to call it a continent.

8. Examine your map again. Your eye is sure to be



caught by that great southern sea which is known as the Mediterranean, because it lies in the midst of the land. Blocking up the eastern end of this sea is the country of Syria. In very ancient days it was the home of a very remarkable people known as the Phœnicians. They were splendid sailors, keen traders, and skilful manufacturers,

and they were constantly searching for suitable places in which to plant colonies and extend their trade.

9. The Phœnicians were the first people of Asia to push out into the Mediterranean and to explore the bays and gulfs of that sea. You know that they even braved the terrors of the Atlantic Ocean and reached the shores of South Britain, where they exchanged their cloth and glass for British tin.

10. Some people tell us that they described Europe, which lay to their west, as the land of sunset, and that this is the meaning of the name. Others say that the name means the "Broad Land," and that it was so called by men who looked across from what we now call Asia Minor and were struck by the long line of the opposite shore.

11. The Phœnicians reached the shores of the "Broad Land" by crossing a stretch of sea; and they therefore imagined that Europe was entirely cut off from Asia by water. Naturally, they considered it a separate continent, and ages passed by before men knew that it was continuous with Asia.

12. Thus you see that in a double sense Europe is the daughter of Asia. Not only is it the smaller part of the land mass of Eurasia, but its early civilization came from the East. In Europe and the countries which have been peopled from it, we find the ablest, the richest, and the most enterprising races of mankind. The greatest statesmen, scholars, poets, painters, writers, engineers, soldiers, and sailors known to history have been of European birth. The people of Europe and those who are sprung from them











now lead and rule the world. Europe must therefore be regarded not only as a distinct continent, but as the most important continent of all.

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## 2. THE SEA-CLEFT CONTINENT.

1. More than nineteen hundred years ago an old geographer said that the shape of Europe resembled that of a dragon. He was thinking of the dragon's limbs, its claws and teeth, all of which project in a striking way from its body. Look at your map once more, and you will see that the old geographer's fanciful description was not far from the mark.

2. Europe is very rich in projections of almost every size and shape—in outstanding portions of land which are wave-washed on all sides but one. It consists of a solid core of land from which peninsulas of every variety jut far out into the sea. This is the most important discovery which you can make from the map. Europe is the sea-cleft continent of the world.

3. A man who has travelled a great deal in North America remembers wide plains, broad sluggish rivers, huge lakes, and vast deserted mountains. He recalls mile after mile of railway travel, but he does not particularly remember the sea. If he were to write an account of his journey, the sea would only appear at the beginning and end of his story. It is the same with travel in South America, Asia, Africa, and Australia.

4. If, however, a man travels in Europe he is never far from salt water. Except in Russia, you cannot find a European town or village which is more than 500 miles from the sea. In all France and Spain there is no place much more than 300 miles from salt water; and from almost every spot in Italy, except in the north, the sea is not more than a couple of days' walk away.

5. This nearness to the sea has been the making of Europe, and has given it quite a different history from that of any other part of the world. The wisest men of olden days used to say that all good things had come out of salt water. Let us try to understand what good things the sea has given to Europe.

6. I need not remind you that the sea is the source of rain, and that, as a rule, places near the sea receive more rain than places far away from it. All parts of Europe are within easy reach of the sea, and the mountain ranges are so arranged that they do not prevent the rain-bearing winds from penetrating the land. The consequence is that Europe, as a whole, is a well-watered and therefore a fertile country, capable of growing large crops for the support of its peoples.

7. Not only does fertility come from the sea but warmth as well. In Europe the winds blow more often from the south-west than from any other quarter. They come from the warm parts of the Atlantic Ocean, and bring to our shores not only moisture but heat as well. For this reason the seaports on the Atlantic coasts are not frozen up in winter as they are in Canada. Ports which are ice-free all the year round are a great advantage for trade.



8. Every one knows that the rain makes the rivers. Because of her plentiful supply of rain Europe has many large rivers branching all over the land. These rivers are not only natural highroads, but they furnish water for drinking purposes, for watering the land, and for driving dynamos and other machinery.

9. In a moment you can lay your finger on the great



AMIDST THE ALPS, THE GREAT HIGHLAND REGION OF EUROPE.

highland region of Europe. You see the series of great mountain ranges, known as the Alps, circling round the north of Italy. So lofty are these mountains that the snow which falls upon their summits never melts, but is stored up year by year in glaciers. These glaciers creep down very slowly into warmer air, where they melt to give rise to several of the great rivers of Europe. All

through the dry summer these glacier-fed streams receive a steady supply of water.

10. You cannot fail to notice that the two great seas of Europe are land-locked—that is, they are surrounded by land, and communicate with the Atlantic Ocean by means of narrow water-gates. The great northern sea, known as the Baltic Sea, enables the peoples of four different nations to communicate with each other without venturing upon the ocean at all. Swedes, Russians, Germans, and Danes live on the shores of the Baltic Sea, and their ships go to and fro upon its waters like shuttles in a loom.

11. The great southern sea, the Mediterranean, is even more striking in this respect. Together with the Black Sea, with which it is connected, it enables Spaniards, Frenchmen, Italians, Austrians, Hungarians, Turks, Greeks, and Russians to communicate with each other, and with the natives of Syria and the coasts of North Africa.

12. These land-locked seas, and the many deep bays which penetrate the land, have played a most important part in the making of Europe, for in early days they enabled the people to travel and to meet each other for the exchange of ideas and goods. There is nothing which does more to lift men out of savagery and make them intelligent than meeting together and trading with each other.

13. The Mediterranean Sea was actually the cradle of that civilization which Europe enjoys. Its coasts are wonderfully cleft by seas and bays, just as though they were specially designed to assist men in communicating with each other.

### 3. THE BUILD OF EUROPE.

1. You are naturally impatient to begin your "grand tour," but you must curb your impatience a little longer, until you have in your minds a picture of Europe as a whole. So far we have talked about the sea, and have learnt what important advantages it confers on the continent. Now we are to give our attention to the surface of the land.

2. You already know how important it is to study the position of the mountains, plateaus, plains, and valleys. Mountain regions, except on their lower slopes, are not fitted for agriculture, and are therefore the waste spaces of the earth. Men congregate in the plains and in the valleys. There they build their towns, and there they make the fields bring forth the kindly fruits of the earth. The surface of a country, and the climate which it enjoys, not only determine the occupations of its people, but influence their character and their history as well.

3. Look at the map between pages 10 and 11. It shows very clearly the distribution of high and low land in Europe. At a glance you see that more than half of Europe lies below 600 feet above the level of the sea. Indeed Europe has the lowest average elevation of all the continents.

4. Sweeping round from the Pyrenees, through France, Belgium, Holland, and North Germany is a great stretch of low land, which broadens out to occupy nearly the whole of Russia. You can travel from the shores of the Bay of Biscay right away to the Urals without meeting a mountain barrier at all. The surface is not flat, but rises and falls in what

we call rolling country. But even the highest parts of it consist of low and modest hills, which can easily be crossed and cultivated right to the summit. You will readily understand that over this great region railway construction has not been difficult.

5. Now let us look at the lofty mountain regions—that is, at those parts of Europe which are over 6,000 feet above the level of the sea. Look first at the most northerly part of Europe—at the great dog-like peninsula of Scandinavia. Running along its sea-coast is a lofty mountain region, which broadens out as it proceeds southwards. This forms, as it were, the great rampart of Europe on the north-west.

6. Across the North Sea we notice these mountains reappearing, though less lofty, in the west of Scotland, in the corners of Ireland, and in that peninsula of north-west France known as Brittany. In an earlier age, when the British Isles were united to Norway and to France, the mountain rampart extended from North Cape to Ushant.

7. It is, however, in the south part of Europe that we see the greatest and loftiest highland region of the continent. If you travel from north to south in Europe, you will come to some point where you see, far off on the horizon, the barren and often snow-clad summits of high mountains rising like a wall to bar your progress. A ridge of lofty mountains cuts right across Southern Europe.

8. Let us look a little closer at this great southern mountain system. Turn your attention to the Iberian Peninsula, the most westerly part of the European mainland. It is really a huge mountain block, carved by river valleys into a series of ranges which appear to spread out

from the Pyrenees somewhat like the fingers of the hand. A glance at the map shows you that the southernmost range is only cut off from the Atlas Mountains of North Africa by the narrow watergate known as the Strait of Gibraltar. Indeed, the whole of Southern Europe seems to belong to Africa rather than to the continent of which it forms a part. There is an old saying that Africa begins at the Pyrenees.

9. Follow the Spanish mountains from the Strait of Gibraltar to the Pyrenees. Beyond this range you see a gap of low land, and almost immediately the mountains begin once more. A long narrow trench, the valley of the Rhone, follows. Then comes the great sweep of the Alps, curving round the north of Italy and throwing off two great ranges southward—the one, known as the Apennines, running through the whole length of the long narrow peninsula of Italy; the other entering the Balkan Peninsula and forming its mountain system.

10. Look for a moment at the majestic Alpine system lying to the north of Italy. It consists of a great region of snow-clad mountains, bare ridges, green meadows, and beautiful lakes, and forms a happy holiday ground for thousands of tourists every year. This great tumbled sea of mountains is almost equal in area to the island of Great Britain, and the total length of the ranges is nearly twice that of England. The distance across it varies from thirty to one hundred and sixty miles.

11. To the north-east of the Alpine system a broad gap, the valley of the Danube, intervenes, and beyond it we see the great mountain range of the Carpathians curving



round the plain of Hungary like an eyebrow. You will notice that it is only cut off from the mountains of the Balkan Peninsula by the narrow pass through which the Danube flows. Nor does the long line of mountains end here. We see it reappearing in the Crimean peninsula of South Russia, in the vast system of the Caucasus Mountains, and in the mountains of Asia Minor. We might follow the line onwards through Asia—that is, nearly halfway round the world.

12. This long line of mountains running through the south of Europe is one of the most important geographical facts which we can notice. It divides Europe into two unequal parts, which are widely different in character and climate. Our civilization began south of the Alps, but all the great nations of modern times live to the north of them.

13. No doubt you imagine that the great highland region of South Europe consists of the oldest mountains of Europe. This is quite a mistake. The mountains of Scandinavia and Western Britain are much older. Indeed the Alps may be called young mountains. Of course, they are ages old, but they were uplifted long after the mountains of North-west Europe.

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#### 4. THE RHONE AND THE RHINE.

1. We will now look at some of the great rivers of Europe. From what you learned in the last lesson you will easily understand that all the really great rivers of Europe must flow across plain regions. If they rise on



**On the Shores of the Mediterranean.**

(View of Naples from the Mergellina.)

*From the picture by Birket Foster.*

the south side of the great barrier of mountains, they can only have a short course to the sea. In most cases such rivers descend so quickly from the highlands to the sea-level that they flow very swiftly, are subject to floods, and are, therefore, of little use for navigation.

2. Two great rivers take their rise in the Alps—the Rhone and the Rhine. A few miles west of the St. Gotthard group of mountains lies the Rhone glacier. At its lower end there is a beautiful blue vault of ice from which issues the infant Rhone. It dashes into a rocky ravine far below, and descends in long windings through pine woods. Flowing south-west and then north-west amidst the mountains, it receives many feeders, and then enters the great Lake of Geneva as a turbid, muddy stream.

3. The lake is forty-five miles long and of a beautiful bluish hue. As we sail along its surface in one of the many steamers which ply on its waters, we leave the high snow-clad mountains behind, and find the shores bounded by gently sloping hills richly clothed with vineyards and orchards. At intervals there are smiling little towns which have become pleasure resorts. At the important town of Geneva, celebrated all the world over for its clocks and watches, the river leaves the lake as a pure swift stream.

4. Almost immediately the Rhone is joined by the Arve, which has its source in the mountain mass of Mont Blanc, and is a drab, muddy river. For nearly a mile you may see the clear stream of the Rhone and the muddy stream of the Arve flowing side by side without mingling. The river then flows on in a general westerly course until it reaches the southern end of the Jura Mountains. Here



it receives the sluggish Saône, which comes from the vine-growing country to the north and adds largely to its volume.

5. At the junction of these two rivers stands the city of Lyons, the third largest city of France, and the chief centre of its silk and velvet industry. Here the stream is some three hundred yards broad. The united river now flows south in a narrow valley with the Cevennes Mountains on



THE CITY OF LYONS, ON THE RHONE.

the right and the Alps on the left. If you travel down the Rhone valley by rail, you will be astonished to discover how little traffic there is upon the river. The stream is so rapid, and the shoals are so frequent, that navigation is very difficult. Nevertheless, the Rhone is united by means of canals with all the important rivers of France, and you may journey from it by water to all the great cities of France, and even to the English Channel and to the Bay of Biscay.

6. As we proceed southward the mountains recede, and the plain becomes broader. We pass through many vineyards, and begin to see olive groves. We also see the mulberry trees which feed the silkworms and give the great city of Lyons much of its raw material. At the old city of Arles the river divides into two branches, known as the Little Rhone and the Great Rhone. Between these branches lies a delta which has been formed of the sediment brought down by the river. It consists of a level plain surrounding a lagoon. Marshy islands obstruct the mouths of the river, and thus a stream which is five hundred miles long from source to mouth, and penetrates the land so deeply and looks so imposing on the map, is of very little use as a highway of commerce.

7. Far different is the Rhine, which is formed by two main streams. It, too, is a glacier-fed river, and in its upper course is extremely rapid. But the river flows northward across the plain region, and in the course of its eight hundred miles' journey it sobers down into one of the most useful waterways of the world.

8. Following the example of the Rhone, it flows into a great lake, which serves it as a filter. This is the Lake of Constance, an even longer lake than that of Geneva. After leaving the lake the river proceeds westward, and forms several waterfalls, which are said by some travellers to be the finest in Europe. It then receives the Aar, which carries the overflow of all the important Swiss lakes, except those of Geneva and Constance.

9. At the important Swiss town of Basel the river is one-eighth of a mile across, and is so swift that boats attached by a trolley to a wire cable are carried across

the stream by the force of the current. At Basel the river makes almost a right angle, and flows north between the Vosges Mountains on the left bank and the Black Forest on the right. In this part of the stream we shall see numerous timber rafts floating on its surface. Some of them are hundreds of feet long, and look like villages afloat. In the wooden huts built on them live the men who work the rafts down-stream. The timber comes from the forests which clothe the hills on either side of the river and its tributaries.

10. Onward the river flows, and when it has lost its earlier fury it becomes a valuable waterway. On the left bank is Alsace, the province which the Germans took from the French during the war of 1870-1. Strassburg, its capital, stands about a mile from the river, and is now one of the most strongly fortified cities of Europe. Beyond Strassburg we are in the "garden of Germany." On either side of us we notice that the banks are terraced and are planted with vineyards. At the modern town of Mannheim the waters of the Neckar unite with those of the main stream. The Neckar comes from the heavily-wooded hills of the Black Forest, and flows past the busy industrial town of Stuttgart and the old university city of Heidelberg.

11. Farther north, at Mainz or Mayence, the Rhine receives on its right bank the important river Main. Look at the map on p. 38. To the east of the river you will see a lozenge formed by ranges of mountains. These are the Bohemian Highlands, and within them lies the Austrian province of Bohemia. The Main rises on the western side of the lozenge, and flows with many windings to the Rhine.

The most important city on the Main is Frankfort, which is one of the busiest trading centres in the west of Germany.

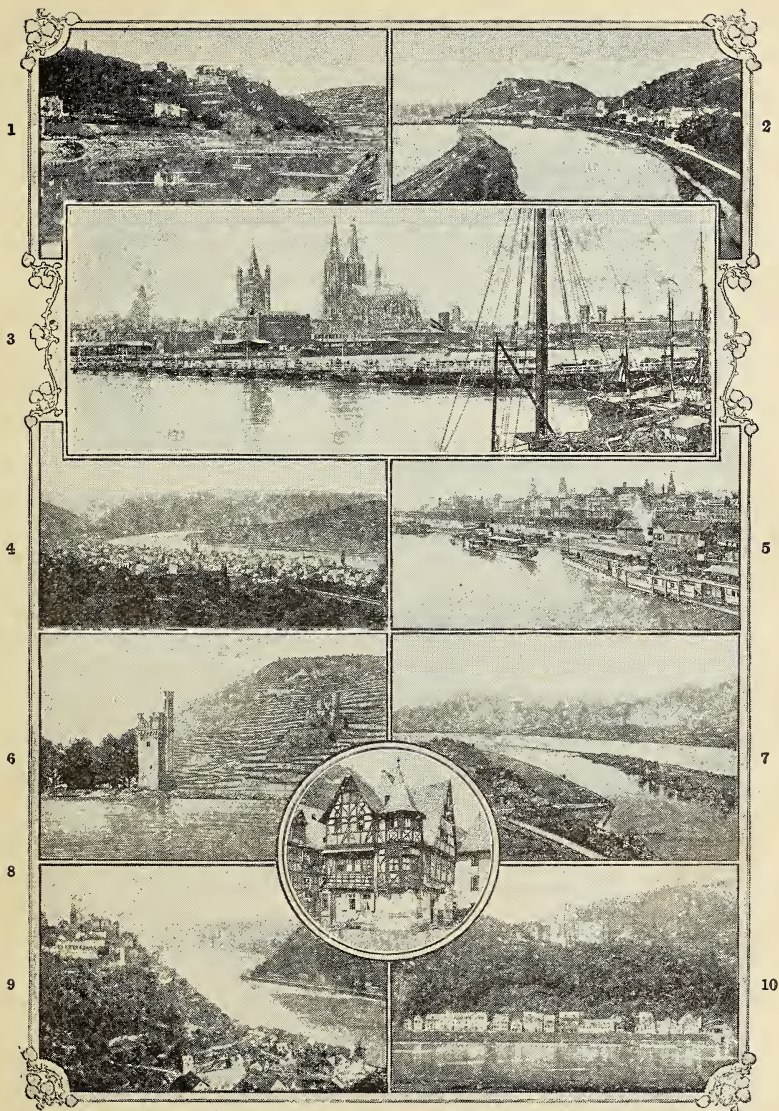
12. Below Mainz a range of hills on the right bank forces the river westward, but at Bingen it cuts its way through the heights, and proceeds northward once more. Between Bingen and Bonn the Rhine is a beautiful river of song and story. Almost every rock and cliff is crowned by a ruined tower, which has a romantic tale to tell us. In many places the rocky walls of the river are so steep that tunnels have to be cut for both road and railway.

13. At the important city of Coblenz—a name which is simply a form of the word “confluence”—the Rhine receives on its left bank the important river known as the Mosel. It rises on the French slopes of the Vosges, and flows through a land of vineyards. On it stands the great fortress of Metz, in which a French army took refuge during the war of 1870–1. The French were surrounded, and more than a hundred and seventy thousand men surrendered. Metz and the country round it now form part of Germany.

14. From Cologne onwards the river flows through the plains towards the boundary of Holland, or the Netherlands. North of Cologne it traverses a busy coalfield, and flows past a swarm of small and grimy towns. On reaching the Netherlands it begins to form its delta, and enters the North Sea by three mouths. The river Meuse, which forms a common delta with the Rhine, is chiefly a French river.

15. From Cologne, through the coalfield to the sea, the Rhine is a highway for ocean-going steamers, and in the Netherlands its waters are crowded with traffic. By means of canals it is connected with the Rhone and with





# VIEWS ON THE RHINE.

1. Rheinfels. 2. Ehrenbreitstein. 3. Cologne. 4. Boppard. 5. Mainz. 6. The "Mouse-tower" and Ehrenfels, Bingen. 7. Rolandseck and the Siebengebirge. 8. At Bacharach. 9. Die Katze and the Lorelei Rock. 10. Stolzenfels and Kapellen.



the Seine, the important French river which runs through Paris. It is also joined by means of the Main with the river Danube, which we shall follow in the next lesson.

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## 5. THE DANUBE AND THE VOLGA.

1. We now turn to the Danube, the second largest river of Europe. The Rhine, as you know, runs from south to north; the Danube runs from west to east, and thus these two rivers make a great water road right across Europe. You can sail from the sea up the Rhine to Mainz, then up the Main until you come to a canal, which will carry your boat to the Danube. On its waters you can float right through Eastern Europe to the Black Sea.

2. The Danube has its source in two streams, which flow down the south-eastern slope of the Black Forest mountains. For three hundred miles the river zigzags across the plateau of Bavaria, and then enters Austria as a deep, broad stream. Onward it flows with the ramparts of the Bohemian mountains to the north, and far away to the south the snow-clad summits of the Alps, which send it many tributary streams. The river Inn, for example, comes from the Tyrol, or Austrian Switzerland, and passes the beautiful city of Innsbruck.

3. Now the Danube reaches Vienna, the chief town of Austria, and the meeting-place of eight great railways, which connect it with most of the capitals of Europe. The river then flows through what is known as the Hungarian Gate, a gap between the Alps and the Carpathians. About a hundred miles to the east it forms a right angle,

and flows to the south in a broad, rapid flood. A short distance below this great bend is the twin city of Budapest, the capital of Hungary. Buda lies on the high right bank and Pest on the low left bank. After leaving Budapest the river sweeps across the great Hungarian plain, and forms many channels and cut-offs. As far as the eye can reach on each bank are flat meadows and wheatfields.



THE DANUBE AT BUDAPEST.

4. The Danube now receives on the right bank the waters of the Drave, a very large and important stream which comes from the many and extensive glaciers of the Austrian Alps. Soon after, on the left bank, it is joined by the Theiss, a stream whose "fount and fall" are both in Hungary. It is a remarkable river, and is fed by many smaller rivers, all rising on the southern slopes of the great range which encircles the Hungarian plain.

5. At Belgrade, the capital of Servia, the Danube is joined by the Save, which is fed by the glaciers of the Austrian Alps, and follows a course almost parallel with that of the Drave. Some of its tributaries drain the Balkan states of Bosnia and Herzegovina, both of which now belong to Austria-Hungary. The Danube leaves Hungary by another gate—the Iron Gate—which is simply a narrow cleft between the Carpathians and the Balkan Mountains.

6. Just before it is joined by the Save the Danube is a mile broad; at the Iron Gate it is less than half that width. The river, forced into a narrow channel studded with jagged rocks, boils and seethes in fury, and is extremely dangerous to ships. During recent years many of the obstructions have been removed by dynamite, and a canal has been constructed, but the passage of the Iron Gate still remains perilous.

7. Beyond the Iron Gate the Danube flows across a broad plain to the Black Sea. It forms many channels, and in some places is several miles broad. To the north of the river is Roumania; to the south is the low plateau of Bulgaria. The river enters the sea by means of many mouths, and its delta covers an area of more than a thousand square miles. The Central or Sulina mouth is dredged so as to admit large ships. The total length of the Danube is 1,750 miles.

8. The Rhone, the Rhine, and the Danube may be called international rivers, because they flow through two or more different states. The Volga, on the other hand, is entirely a Russian river. You already know that the great plain of Europe broadens out in Russia so as to occupy almost

the whole country. From the frozen bays of the Arctic Ocean to the desert shores of the great salt inland sea, known as the Caspian, Russia is one vast plain. Across this plain in a general south-easterly direction flows the Volga, the largest and longest river of Europe.

9. Find on your map St. Petersburg, the capital of Russia. About one hundred and fifty miles south-east of



THE VOLGA AT NIJNI-NOVGOROD.

this city you will see a range of hills known as the Valdai Hills. At their highest they only reach about 1,100 feet, and in any other country but Russia they would be scarcely worth marking on the map. "Mother Volga" begins in a peat moss on the slopes of these insignificant hills, and after passing through a series of lakes, flows forth on its long journey as a slow, broad stream. Apart from the rail-



ways, it is the great highway of the country. You will notice that, unlike the other great rivers of Europe, it is entirely a river of the plain.

10. Many feeders join the main river, which wends its way eastward, and at Nijni-Novgorod it is joined by the Oka, which is almost as large as itself. The united river is nearly a mile in width. Nijni-Novgorod is a sleepy place, which only wakens up for some six weeks in summer, when a huge fair, attended by traders from many parts of Europe and Asia, takes place. Most of the Asiatics reach the place by means of steamers, which sail up from Astrakhan, a city at its mouth.

11. As we proceed we notice that the left bank of the river is low and sandy, and that its right bank is high and wooded. We notice, too, that few of the towns or villages are built near the river. When the snows melt in spring the Volga overflows its banks, and spreads out for miles over the surrounding country. It is actually forty-five feet deeper in spring than in autumn.

12. Now the Volga turns southward, and receives by means of the broad and long Kama a tribute of waters from the Urals. Just before we reach the confluence we pass Kazan, which stands three miles from the stream, except during floods, when the waters of the river lap the little hill on which it is built. Some four hundred miles lower down we reach Saratov, the largest city of the Lower Volga, and a great centre of river trade. In another two hundred miles or more the river swings to the south-east, and branching into many channels, forms its delta after a course of 2,300 miles. At the head of the delta



we see the gilded domes of the city of Astrakhan, the chief port of the Caspian Sea.

13. Several of the second-class rivers need a moment's attention. By far the most important of them is the Elbe, which rises in Bohemia, breaks through the northern rampart of mountains, skirts the edge of two important mining valleys, and leads to Hamburg, the greatest port of continental Europe. The Elbe flows through one of the most densely populated districts north of the Alps, and is therefore a very valuable waterway.

14. The Oder and the Vistula, two other German rivers, communicate with the mining and manufacturing centres of Silesia and Poland, but they flow into the Baltic, which is partly frozen over for more than a hundred days in each year. The French river Seine is also valuable, for large craft can reach Rouen, after a voyage of 120 miles from the sea. The Dnieper and the Dniester of South Russia are also important highroads of trade.

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## 6. THE CLIMATE OF EUROPE.

1. I have already told you that Europe is the home of the wisest, strongest, and most enterprising peoples of the earth. This is no accident, but is due, in a large degree, to the climate—that is, to the general kind of weather which Europe enjoys. Perhaps you did not know that climate is so important in the making of men. There is scarcely anything more important.

2. In Book II. you learned something of the earth's zones or belts of climate, and discovered that the ideal

parts of the earth for mankind lie in the middle of the Temperate Zones. It is a remarkable fact that all civilized nations, both in ancient and modern times, have lived within the North Temperate Zone. Here the highest forms of art and speech have flourished, and here the great religions of the world have been given to men.

3. The great bulk of Europe lies within this favoured zone. Only portions of the Scandinavian Peninsula and of Northern Russia lie within the Arctic Circle; and nowhere does Europe touch the Torrid Zone. For this reason Europe offers the least variety of climates of any of the continents. Nevertheless, there is a great difference between the east and the west of Europe, and between the north and the south. Generally speaking, the farther we travel south the warmer the climate becomes. This explains why people who can afford to do so, spend the winter in the south of Europe.

4. The seaboard countries of the west of Europe have what we call an *equable* climate—that is, they are not very cold in winter, nor very hot in summer. This is due to the nearness of the sea and to the winds which chiefly blow from the west and south-west. The farther we travel south the less strongly do these southerly and westerly winds blow.

5. The farther you travel into the land from the sea the less rain does the land receive and the more *extreme* does the climate become—that is, it is much hotter in summer and much colder in winter than on the seaboard. The sea has less and less effect in tempering the climate, and so we find that as we travel east the thermometer rises higher in summer and sinks lower in winter than it does in the neighbourhood of the sea.

6. Look at your map and find Moscow, one of the great cities of Russia. It stands about the same distance north of the equator as Edinburgh, and, other things being equal, its climate ought to be much the same. As a matter of fact the summer heat in Moscow is very great; the dust whirls about you, and the mosquitoes are very troublesome. Very rarely, indeed, does Edinburgh know an overpoweringly hot day.



MOSCOW, THE OLD CAPITAL OF RUSSIA.

7. During winter, Moscow lies for many weeks in the grip of almost arctic cold. The snow lies thick on the ground for months, and deaths from frost-bite are frequent. In Edinburgh the snow never remains long on the ground, and the young folks in the Scottish capital do not expect to have more than a week or two of skating. As you know, this difference in the climates of Edinburgh and Moscow is due to the presence in one case, and to the absence in the other, of the beneficent sea.

8. Europe may be roughly divided into four zones of climate. First we have the northerly zone, then the western or Atlantic zone, next the eastern zone, and finally the southern or Mediterranean region. In the north of the northerly zone we find the only Arctic part of Europe. As we might expect, this region is almost deserted. It is inhabited by a few Laplanders, who roam from place to place with their reindeer and dogs. The soil yields little or nothing, and the Laplanders live on their herds and on the harvest of the sea.

9. Find Cape Finisterre at the north-west corner of Spain. The west or Atlantic region lies north and west of a line drawn from Cape Finisterre to the crest of the Western Alps, thence to the line of the Bohemian Highlands, and northwards to the mouth of the German river Oder. It includes, you will notice, the British Isles, most of France, all Holland and Belgium, Denmark, nearly all Germany, and the southern parts of Norway and Sweden. In all this region the thermometer rarely sinks below freezing-point for more than a month in the year. It is the great *equable* region, and, generally speaking, it experiences no great heat and no great cold.

10. Rain falls all the year round, especially in the winter months. In the east of England we find a dry stretch of country on which much wheat is grown. Holland and Belgium, however, lie too low and are too wet to grow cereals on a large scale. They are, therefore, chiefly devoted to dairy farming, and they export large quantities of butter and cheese to all parts of Europe. Denmark and the portions of Norway and Sweden included in this zone grow

wheat, rye, flax, and hemp. On the hill slopes in the south of the Scandinavian Peninsula we find thick forests of oak, beech, birch, pine, and spruce fir.

11. In the north-west of France fruits, such as apples and pears, grow well, and farther south we find many wheatfields. Still farther south and throughout the western part of the country the vine and the mulberry tree flourish. All along the Rhine valley the vine also grows well. In South Germany we find wheat, hops, and beet which is largely grown for sugar. Farther north the hardy cereals are found, together with large crops of potatoes.

12. The west or Atlantic region is by far the most important of all the zones of climate. It contains the most powerful and the richest nations of Europe, and the greatest cities of the world. Within it are the most important coal-fields and mining centres of the whole continent. Take away this region, and Europe would at once lose its title to be considered the leading continent of the world.

13. We now come to the eastern region, which includes the great plain of Russia. Over this vast area there is frost for more than two months in the year, and a high degree of summer heat. There is far less rain than in the west, and it usually falls in the summer months. In the north of this region we find the land covered with dense forests of birch, larch, and silver fir. In the south and east are the Steppes or great plains. For the most part they are dry, though large tracts are covered with fertile black earth, in which vast crops of wheat are grown. These Steppes cover nearly one-fifth of all Europe.

14. To the south of the great mountain barrier of the



Pyrenees, Alps, and Balkans we find the southern or Mediterranean region. Here there is no continuous frost except on the high mountains. It is never very cold in winter, and is always very hot in summer. On the highlands the rainfall is heavy ; on the lowlands it is very light, and falls chiefly in winter.

15. All the richest fruits and flowers of the earth grow in abundance throughout this region. The orange, the fig, the lemon, the banana, the pomegranate, the almond, the sugar-cane, the olive, and the palm grow here and nowhere else in Europe. Roses are found in great profusion, and in certain hot and moist places rice and cotton are cultivated. The Mediterranean region comprises about one-ninth of Europe.

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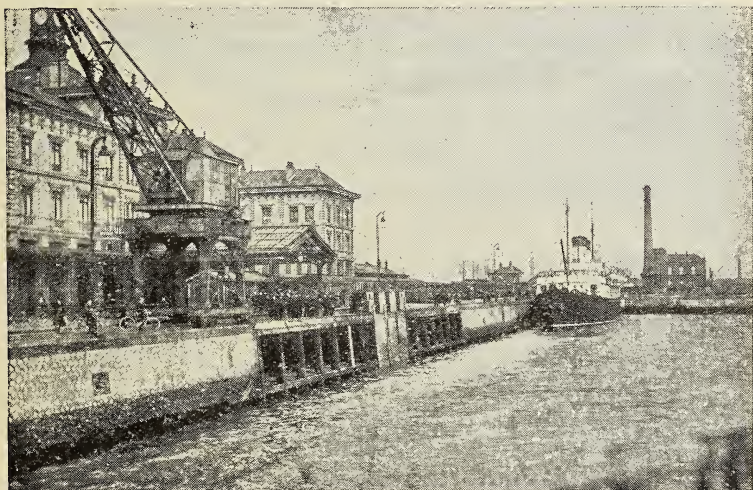
## 7. THE "GRAND TOUR."

1. Our long-promised "Grand Tour" is just about to begin. We bowl through the crowded streets of London, and our taxi pulls up at Charing Cross Station. A porter takes our luggage ; we secure our tickets, and make our way to the Paris express. The platform is a scene of bustle. It is crowded with passengers and their friends, and many of them seem to us to be strangely un-British in appearance. From several of the little chattering groups comes the rattle of an unfamiliar tongue.

2. We take our seats ; the guard blows his whistle ; and we are *en route* for France, the home of our nearest neighbours. We run through the suburbs of London, and

ere long we find ourselves in the rich and beautiful county of Kent, speeding through a smiling land of orchards and hop-fields. In a couple of hours we reach Dover, and our train runs right on to the Admiralty Pier, where the Channel steamer is waiting our arrival.

3. We go on board, and while a steam crane transfers the mails and the baggage from the train to the boat, we gaze upon the white cliffs, crowned by the grand old castle



CALAIS HARBOUR.

which has kept watch and ward over the port ever since the days of the Normans. We admire, too, the great harbour enclosed by massive walls. Yonder is a man-of-war at anchor, and not far away is an Atlantic liner.

4. Now the siren booms, the ropes are cast off, and we steam slowly out of the harbour mouth into the Strait of Dover. It is a clear day, and right ahead, only 21 miles

distant, we see the French coast. Through our field-glasses we can see the lighthouse on Gris Nez, and a sailor points out to us the place where Burgess landed after his successful swim across the Channel in September 1911. Every moment of our short passage has its interest, for the Strait is the busiest sea-lane in all the world. As our fast turbine steamer forges ahead we see every type of vessel, from the dancing little fishing-boat to the stately Peninsular and Oriental liner bound for India and Australia.

5. Now we sight the Calais lighthouse, and we are at once reminded that for more than two hundred years the port of Calais belonged to England. A plate on the old town hall still records how it was won from us, and a statue of the Six Burghers not far away recalls a story which is familiar to every British boy and girl. Now we are near enough to see the sands and the bathing machines, and a few minutes later we pass through the narrow entrance into the harbour. On both sides of us are heavily-armed forts.

6. The harbour is much smaller than that of Dover, and is surrounded by stone quays. On the left is the railway station, with the national flag of France, the tricolour, flying above it. On the quay we see a crowd of blue-bloused porters waiting to take our luggage ashore. A policeman in a cocked hat, with sword and revolver hanging from his belt, looks down at us as we make fast, and the gangways are run on board.

7. The Paris train is waiting, but there is half an hour's delay before we leave the station. Our luggage must be taken into the custom house to be examined. The French do not admit certain goods from foreign countries duty

free, and this examination is to make sure that we are not trying to smuggle such goods into France. As soon as we have "passed the customs" we take our seats in the train, and find that the carriages are large and airy.

8. As we steam out of the station we catch a glimpse of the fishing-boats in the old harbour, and see the tower of an ancient church. Soon we find ourselves crossing a green flat plain with many ditches. These were the marshes which formerly protected Calais from attack by land. This green plain stretches northwards, and runs right into the Low Countries of Belgium and Holland. It is cut off from the sea by high sandbanks or dunes. Now we rise to chalk hills like those of Kent, and after passing through a tunnel, run past the town of Boulogne. In the harbour we shall probably see a Channel steamer which has crossed from Folkestone.

9. Boulogne is now, like Calais, a summer resort, and it, too, has historic memories for us. Here, in the year 1803, Napoleon massed a great army for the invasion of England. "The Channel is but a ditch," he said, "and any one can cross it who has but the courage to try." Thanks to our great seamen, he never had the courage to try. Now we leave Boulogne, and run along the coast, with its fringe of sand dunes, until we reach Abbeville, at the mouth of the Somme. About ten miles to the north of us the famous battle of Crécy was fought in the year 1346.

10. We now follow the valley of the Somme inland. I want you to notice this river especially. You see that it is lined with rows of tall poplars mile after mile, and that its banks are beautifully kept. The Somme is not a large



river, but it is slow and peaceful, and therefore very suitable for barge traffic.

11. The French make more use of their rivers and take better care of them than any other nation. By means of canals they have constructed a network of waterways all over the land. The upper parts of the rivers, which are either too rapid or too shallow for navigation, have been *canalized*—that is, they have been deepened, their banks have been straightened, and locks have been made where the level of the river changes suddenly. Sometimes canals are dug alongside the river, and are fed with its water. By means of these canals goods are carried very cheaply to and from all parts of the country.

12. So far France appears to us to be a great plain. From the carriage windows we see miles of rolling ploughland running right up to the horizon, without a hedge or wall to break it anywhere. Here and there are a few copses standing by themselves like islands, and every now and then we see the spire of a church with houses clustering round it. The villages consist of houses built together like a little town, and not straggling like those of an English village.

13. Now our train runs into the station of the largest town we have seen since we arrived in France. This is Amiens, a very old city which is now a busy manufacturing place with many mills, in which flax, cotton, wool, and silk are woven, and lace is made. Its cathedral is one of the grandest in the world. In front of it are many carvings illustrating scenes from Holy Scripture. John Ruskin, the



great English writer on art, calls these carvings "the Bible of Amiens."

14. On and on we travel, and as we begin to draw near Paris we shall be sure to notice a number of green mounds standing up from the plain. These are the forts which protect Paris. Later on we cross a bridge over a broad ditch, and see stretching away to right and left of us the high green embankments which encircle the city for a length of twenty miles. Paris is now the greatest fortress in the world.

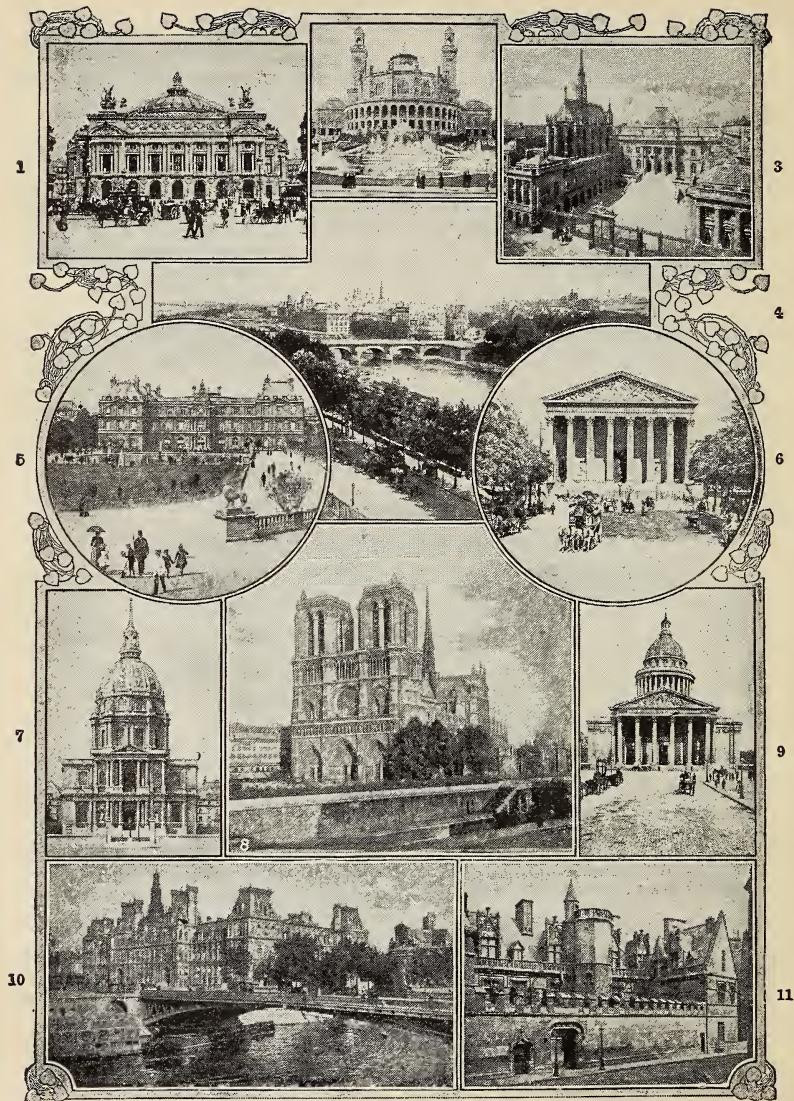
15. We enter Paris through an opening in its great wall of defence. Soon we run into the Gare du Nord, and our eight hours' journey from London is at an end. We drive to a hotel, and are soon ready to sally forth and see the sights of what is perhaps the most attractive city on earth.

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## 8. WALKS IN PARIS.

1. In making a tour of a strange town it is a good plan to begin with what is known as the nucleus—that is, the part which was first built upon, and from which it has extended in all directions. In London, for example, we should begin with the City; in Edinburgh, with the Castle; in Rome, with the Capitol; and so on. The nucleus of Paris was an island in the Seine which was chosen because it could easily be defended. This island is still known as the City.

2. We make our way through crowded streets, and come to a bridge which connects the northern bank of the river



# NOTABLE BUILDINGS IN PARIS.

1. Opera House. 2. Trocadéro. 3. Palais de Justice. 4. Ile de la Cité. 5. Luxembourg. 6. Madeleine.
7. Invalides. 8. Notre Dame. 9. Panthéon. 10. Hôtel de Ville. 11. Musée de Cluny.

with the island. Let us pause on the bridge and learn something of the river. It flows in a semicircle through the broad hill-encircled basin of Paris and divides it into two parts, the northern portion being much the larger. We see at once that the river is only about half the width of the Thames at London, and also that it is not tidal. There are no ugly mud banks along the sides, but trim stone quays. The Seine at Paris cannot be called an industrial river, for its traffic is mainly confined to small passenger steamers, fancifully called "flies" and "swallows" by the Parisians.

3. Most of the chief public buildings face the river on both banks. The stream is spanned by thirty-two handsome bridges, and on the quays you may always see patient anglers with rod and line. The water is clear, and there are many floating swimming baths.

4. Now we move on to the island, and find ourselves in an open paved square, with the great cathedral of Notre-Dame rising nobly on the eastern side. It stands on the site of a pagan temple, and is the great historical church of the city. Its front is one mass of beautiful carving. On the western side of the island is the Palace of Justice, a vast pile, in which sit the chief judges of the land. On the north bank of the river is the huge Hôtel de Ville, or Town Hall.

5. We now retrace our steps, turn to the left, and find ourselves in the Rue de Rivoli, one of the finest and most famous of Parisian streets. It is two miles long, and its north side is a continuous line of large shops, many of which display the pretty and tasteful jewellery and knick-knacks for which Paris is famed. On the south side stands



the palace of the Louvre, now full of art treasures gathered from all parts of the world.

6. The Louvre is built round three sides of a square, and on the fourth side is an arch covered with carving and adorned with sculptures to commemorate the victories of Napoleon, the great Emperor of the French. Beyond the arch are the beautiful gardens of the Tuileries, with their bright flowers, statues, and fountains. Beneath the trees we see open-air cafés, and on the walks we are sure to see many nurses, with long streamers on their quaint caps, carrying daintily dressed babies to take the air.

7. Resuming our walk along the Rue de Rivoli, we reach the Place de la Concorde, which affords us a splendid view of the handsomest part of the capital. It is a grand square, with an ancient granite column from Egypt in the midst, and bronze fountains which are always playing. Round the square are monuments and gilded pillars, each of which represents one or other of the great cities of France.

8. We cross the river by a fine bridge, and see in front of us a splendid building with a great dome. It is now a military museum, with collections of arms and pictures of famous war scenes in the history of France. We pass round to the front, climb a flight of steps, and enter a noble hall. In the centre is an open space with a granite balustrade. Look down. You see a great granite tomb. Beneath it lies all that remains of Napoleon, the man who made France mistress of Europe. Above his tomb hang fifty-four flags, taken from the various nations which he overthrew in his twelve great battles.

9. We are now on the south side of the river, in the



**In Paris—the Avenue de l'Opéra.**  
*(From the painting by L. de Schryver. By permission of the Artist.)*



older and quieter part of Paris, where the lawyers, artists, and students live. We pass into one of the broad tree-fringed streets known as boulevards. It will interest you to know that the word *boulevard* means "bulwark" or "rampart," and that boulevards are so called because they are usually built on the site of the old lines of defence. We follow the boulevard towards the east, and after a time cross the river once more and make our way into a large square with a lofty column in the middle. In the pavement at the western corner we see a line of white stones marking the wall of the old prison of Paris, known as the Bastille.

10. We have spent a long morning sight-seeing, and we are now ready for rest and refreshment. We make our way to Montmartre, which is the centre of the gay life which Parisians love so well. Here are numberless attractive cafés and theatres. Outside the cafés, on the pavement, are rows of chairs and marble-topped tables, in the midst of trees planted in green tubs. We take our seats and watch the passers-by. We are certain to notice the politeness of the French people. No Frenchman would think of entering a café or a shop without raising his hat; nor would he address any man or woman, however poor, without using "sir" or "madam," as the case might be. The Parisian ladies dress very beautifully; indeed the fashions for women come from Paris. Even the work-girls show much daintiness in their dress. They take a special pride in dressing their hair, and many of them go bareheaded.

11. Now we hear the rattle of a drum, and see a file of soldiers, rather shabbily dressed in blue overcoats and

# FRANCE



Present Boundaries shown in Red

Bartholomew, Edin'



red trousers, march by. These young men are not what we should call regulars, but are conscripts. Let me explain. In France every man, unless he is a cripple or blind, or otherwise incapable of bearing arms, is obliged to serve as a soldier for three years after his twenty-first birthday. He leaves his occupation, whatever it may be, and lives in barracks, where he is trained in the art of war. In this way France supplies herself with a large army at a small cost.

12. We might continue to walk about Paris for a week and not exhaust all the sights which it has to show. I think we shall come to the conclusion that it is one of the most beautiful cities on earth. It is the centre of gaiety, art, taste, and fashion, and nothing can exceed the pride of the French people in their splendid capital.

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## 9. LA BELLE FRANCE.

1. France lies not only in the western or Atlantic zone of climate, but also in the Mediterranean region. When you think of this you will realize that there must be great differences of climate, products, and natural character between the north and the south of France.

2. The north shores of France are the home of the French seamen. These have learnt to battle with the stormy waters, the baffling tides, and the thick weather of the English Channel and the Atlantic Ocean. In the south the dwellers on the coast sail the Mediterranean Sea, which is more often calm than stormy, more often clear than foggy, and is practically tideless. The real sailor is only made on the shores of the great oceans. You will notice that France





**The Return of the Gleaners—Breton Peasant Scene.**  
(From the painting by Jules Breton in the Luxembourg Gallery.)



and Spain are the only countries of Europe which have oceanic coasts as well as a seaboard on the Mediterranean.

3. As we proceed southwards the weather grows warmer, and we naturally expect to see a difference in the products of the soil. In North France the crops are much the same as those of England. In South France we find the olive, Indian corn or maize, and a number of fruits and vegetables which will not grow out of doors in the colder north. Vines are to be found a long way north. A line from the mouth of the Loire, through Paris to Sedan, roughly shows the northern limit of the vine.

4. There is also an important difference between north and south in the character of the country. Most of the north is flat, or consists of pleasant rounded hills, while most of the south is mountainous. For this reason the rivers of the north are slow-flowing, and very suitable for navigation; while those of the south are rapid, and therefore of little use as highroads of trade. The rivers of the north—such as the Seine, the Mosel, and the Meuse—carry an immense amount of traffic.

5. The rivers of the south—such as the Loire, the Garonne, the Dordogne, and the Rhone—are not only rapid, but they vary greatly in volume according to the season. The Loire, for example, consists in the dry summer of a few narrow and shallow rapid streams flowing through a broad expanse of sand. After a week of wet weather it becomes a broad, muddy stream, hundreds of yards wide, and deep enough to float a large ship.

6. The lower courses of some of these southern rivers are broad and deep, and on them we find seaports. Nantes, on

the lower Loire, is an important seaport, though the river bed has to be dredged to enable large steamers to reach the town. On the lower Garonne we find Bordeaux, which ships the wine produced in the south-west. A canal enables barges to go from the Garonne to the quaint old city of Carcassonne, and thence to the Mediterranean. The Rhone, as we already know, is almost useless for navigation. There is not a single port on it. The two great Mediterranean ports of France, Marseilles and Toulon, lie to the east of its delta.

7. Follow on your map the river Loire and find its tributary the Allier. If you were to walk southwards along the banks of the Allier, you would soon see against the sky a range of lofty peaks. These are the mountains of Auvergne, and they consist of old and extinct volcanoes. The highest of them is called the Puy de Sancy. We may also note the Puy de Dôme, and on the north side of it a lesser height, called the Little Puy de Dôme. The peasants of Auvergne say,—

“If Dôme were on Dôme,  
One would see the gates of Rome.”

8. Looking south from the crater of the Puy de Dome, we see far off a great tangle of mountains running north and south for many miles like a blue wall. These are the Cevennes, which on their eastern side overlook the valley of the Rhone. Still directing our steps southwards, we might travel on amidst the mountains for days until we reached a peak just north of Carcassonne. If we were to climb to the summit we should see, about sixty miles

away, the great Pyrenees, which, as you know, form a natural barrier between France and the Iberian Peninsula.

9. France is not divided into counties but into departments, which were marked out about the year 1790. Centuries before these departments were created, France was divided into provinces. Most of these provinces are much larger than the present departments, and sometimes include four or five of them. These old divisions of the land grew up naturally in the course of ages, and they represent real divisions of the French people. The departments, on the other hand, are modern and artificial. A Frenchman will describe himself, even to-day, as belonging to a particular province. He will say, for example, that he is a Breton, or a Norman, or a Burgundian. The people are much attached to their provinces, and are as proud of them as a Welshman is of Wales or a Scotsman of Scotland.

10. Each province, as a rule, has its own dialect, and in many provinces the peasants wear a particular costume which you cannot see anywhere else. If you travel in Normandy, for example, you will often see the women on market days wearing a tall cap fastened to a cardboard frame with gold and silver pins and having lace wings. Cross the boundary into Brittany and you will see quite a different kind of cap. It stands high above the head, and has wide wings and loops. These caps are of a different shape in different parts of Brittany, and at a great festival as many as a dozen or fifteen different kinds of caps may be seen. The men wear round felt hats with long ribbons, jackets with many buttons, and big wooden shoes. As you travel

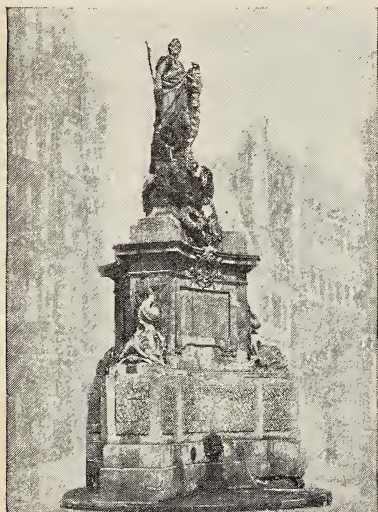
through France it is very interesting to notice the differences of costume in the various provinces.

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## 10. THE PROVINCES OF FRANCE.—I.

1. The province of France with which British boys and girls are most familiar is Normandy, the land of the Normans who conquered England in the eleventh century. It is most like England of all the French provinces. The thick hedgerows of hawthorn and bramble, the elms, and the smiling apple orchards are the very picture of an English countryside.

2. Normandy is mainly a country of farmers and fruit-growers, but it also contains the most important cotton manufacturing town of all France. This is Rouen, often known as the "Manchester of France."



IN ROUEN—THE JOAN OF ARC STATUE.

3. The busy industries of the city are most important, but I think we shall be more interested in its historic remains. The square containing the statue of Joan of Arc, who was here burned alive, is sure to attract us. The cathedral is one of the most

glorious in the world, and contains a monument to Rollo, the first Norman duke. The heart of Richard Cœur de Lion was buried in it, but now reposes in the museum. There are many other churches of wonderful beauty, and some of the old streets are very quaint.

4. Havre, or Le Havre, to give it its full title, stands at the mouth of the Seine, and is the chief commercial port of the north. It has fine docks and a very large trade. Many Atlantic liners call at Havre, and most French emigrants for the New World set sail from this port. Cherbourg, which stands at the head of a deep bay on the north of the peninsula known as the Cotentin, is one of the chief naval ports of France.

5. Westwards of Normandy is the province of Brittany, or Little Britain, a land of moorland, rugged hillsides, and lowland pastures dotted with pine woods. It is a great peninsula, and resembles Wales and the west of England. Its people are the most Celtic of all France. The Breton is a proud, brave, simple-minded man, and he still retains his old costume on *fête* days. Scattered over the country are the many stone circles and avenues which remind him of his far-off ancestors.

6. There are many quaint towns in Brittany, but we can only mention the old seaport of St. Malo and the naval port of Brest. St. Malo clusters over a rocky islet surrounded with walls and connected with the mainland by a single narrow causeway. Steamers ply regularly between St. Malo and Southampton. Brest rejoices in one of the finest harbours in all Europe. In olden days its splendid position made it a bone of contention between England,

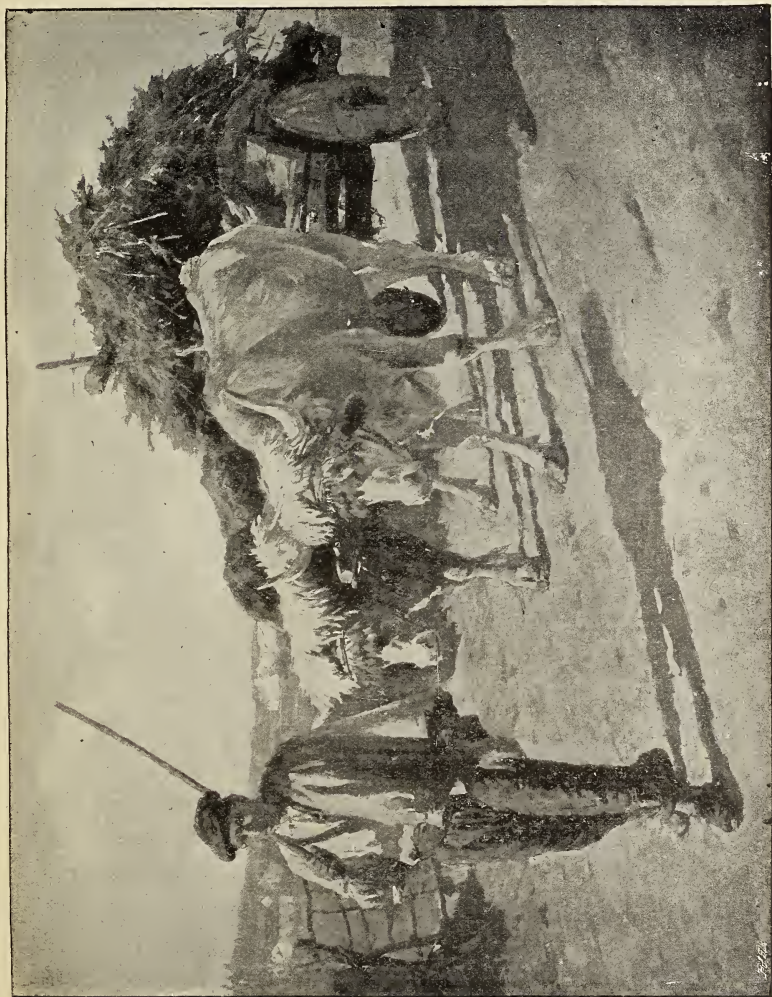


Spain, and France ; now it is very strongly fortified, and is the chief naval station of France. You have already made acquaintance with the city of Nantes, which stands upon the Loire, and was included in the old province of Brittany.

7. South of Brittany, on the coast of the Bay of Biscay, was the old province of Aquitaine, and between it and Normandy were the provinces of Maine, Anjou, and Touraine. Anjou, you will remember, was of much importance in our history, for it gave us the great house of Anjou, from which sprang our Plantagenet line of kings. The province lay on both sides of the Loire, where it receives the Maine, which gave its name to the province farther north.

8. Farther up the Loire we reach the old province of Touraine, which has Tours as its capital. The inhabitants say, "Normandy is Normandy, Burgundy is Burgundy, Provence is Provence, but Touraine is France." It is a rich, fertile province, and one of the most attractive parts of the country. Tours, which stands just above the point where the Cher enters the Loire, is a pleasant city, with a noble cathedral and a large trade in silk, wine, and hardware.

9. Aquitaine was the name given to all the country from Brittany, Anjou, and Touraine, south to the Pyrenees. The northern portion was known as Poitou, and the chief town in it even to-day is Poitiers, near to which a famous victory was won by the Black Prince in the year 1356. Poitiers has many fine churches, and is as old as the days of the Romans. In Poitou we find the little river Charente,



IN BASQUE-LAND.

*(From the painting by Stanhope A. Forbes, A.R.A.)*

on which stands the town of Cognac, famous for brandy. At its mouth is the strongly-fortified port and arsenal of Rochefort. North of this river, on the sea-coast opposite to the island of Ré, is La Rochelle, a busy industrial city. In history it is famous as the stronghold of the Huguenots, or French Protestants. It was often besieged, and once held out heroically for more than a year. Like Rochefort, it is strongly fortified.

10. The river Garonne crosses the middle part of Aquitaine, known as Guienne. Above Bordeaux, which has already been mentioned, it receives the river Dordogne, and forms its fine estuary, the Gironde. Between Bordeaux and the Spanish frontier is the old province of Gascony. Formerly its long coastal strip, known as the Landes, was a region of marshes, across which the strong westerly wind blew the sands of the seashore and rendered desolation still more desolate. Now a large part of the district has been planted with sea pines, the marshes have been drained, and wheat fields and pastures have been formed. Many small flocks of sheep graze in this district, and are tended by shepherds who walk about on the sandy and marshy soil by means of stilts six feet high. At certain seasons of the year the shepherds gash the pine trees and collect the resin which oozes from them.

11. South of the Landes we find an interesting district, which contains the old town of Bayonne, and the pretty watering-place of Biarritz, which was a favourite resort of our late king, Edward the Seventh. We are now in the home of the Basques, who are neither French nor Spaniards, but are perhaps the oldest race in Europe. Biarritz is close to

the Basque country, and outside the town we are sure to see brown-faced Basques with their white oxen and creaking carts. In the summer time the oxen have fleeces of wool on their heads to ward off the effects of the sun. The Basques are a hardy, vigorous race, very fond of singing and story-telling. Some of their stories are very ancient indeed.

12. To the east of Guienne is the old province of Auvergne, which, as you know, is a land of ancient volcanic craters. We have already noticed that the Allier, a tributary of the Loire, runs through this interesting region.

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## II. THE PROVINCES OF FRANCE.—II.

1. We will now pass to the Mediterranean coast and see something of the old province of Languedoc, which sweeps round from the Pyrenees to the right bank of the Rhone. In Languedoc we are in the true south, a land of sunshine and warmth, in which the gayest flowers and the richest fruits grow to perfection. Parts of the country, unfortunately, suffer from too little rain, and have a red, burnt-up appearance during summer.

2. Languedoc came very early under the sway of the Romans, and as a consequence we find in it many old Roman towns with interesting remains of these great conquerors. Toulouse, the chief inland town of South France, stands on the Garonne. Frequently during the wet autumn the river Garonne overflows its banks and floods the lower town. Toulouse is a place of many





**La Côte d'Azur ("The Blue Coast").**  
(From the picture by Sir E. A. Waterlow, R.A., P.R.W.S.)



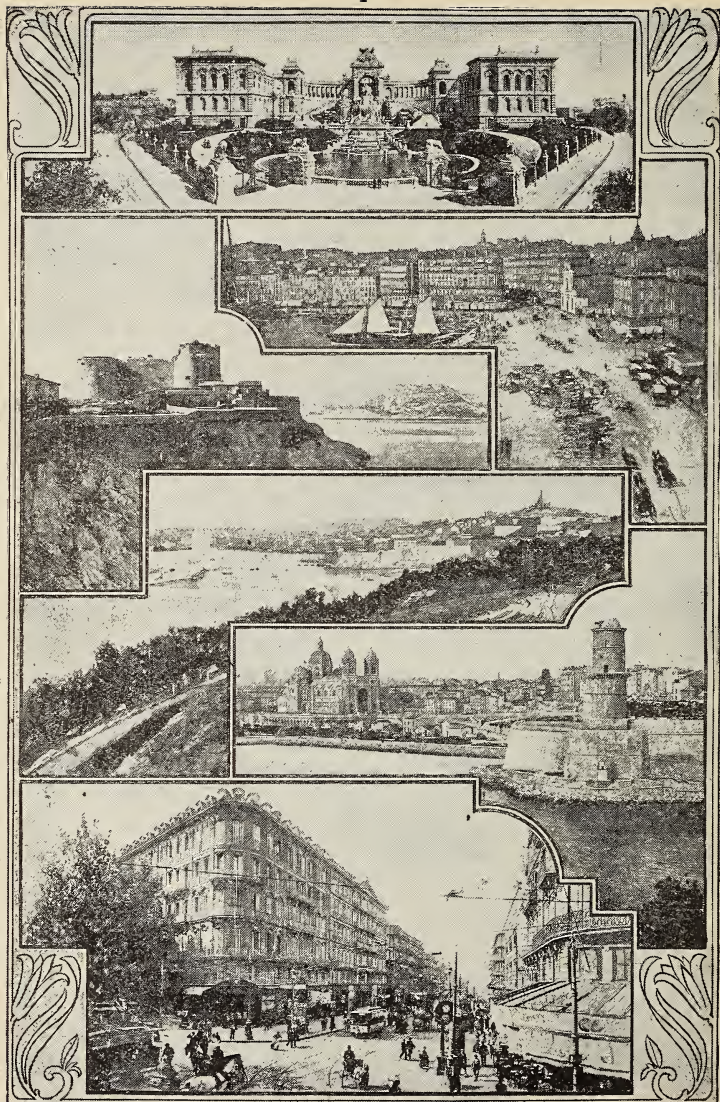
important manufactures, and has a large trade with Spain. It has also a university, and is the seat of an archbishop.

3. Beyond the Rhone is the old province of Provence, or "*the* Provence," as the Romans called it. Provence is a land "of gray-green olive groves, of dark cypresses, of houses with flat terraced roofs; where vines clamber over trellises, and great fig leaves creep over the edges of garden walls; where little dove-coloured oxen draw creaking wagons over white roads in the hot, dusty sunshine." The coast of Provence is famed all the world over for its beauty and exquisite climate.

4. The chief city of this coast is Marseilles, the first seaport of France. It lies between lofty limestone hills, that sparkle in the bright sunshine; and is built round the old port, with its stone quays and massive sea-walls. Big ships use the great docks which lie in the north-west of the town. They can come and go as they please, for, as you know, there is very little tide in the Mediterranean.

5. The docks at Marseilles are always busy. Here we see the great liners which ply to Egypt, India, Australia, and the Far East. British passengers, by what is called the "overland route," cross France and embark at Marseilles. By doing so they avoid the six or seven days occupied in sailing to Marseilles by sea. Here, too, we see the steamers which cross the Mediterranean Sea to Algeria, the most important African colony of France.

6. There is much to interest us in Marseilles, especially in the shops and cafés and its fine boulevard, which stretches inland from the old port. The people of Marseilles are



## VIEWS IN MARSEILLES.

1. Palais Longchamp (Musée des Beaux Arts). 2. Quai de la Fraternité. 3. Château d'If. 4. The Old Port and Notre Dame de la Garde. 5. Fort St. Jean and Cathedral. 6. Rue de Noailles and Cannabière.

very proud of this boulevard, and they say that if Paris had one like it Paris would be a little Marseilles. Men of all nations may be seen in the streets, and we frequently turn to admire an Algerian Arab striding along in his white robes with the air of a king.

7. Now we sail along the coast of what is known as the Riviera. It greatly resembles the African shore, on the other side of the Mediterranean. There are the same rocky promontories, the same thickets of olive trees, the same palms and hedges of Barbary fig, and the same radiant sky. The coast is backed by rugged hills covered with forests of chestnut, pine, and cork. A few hours' steaming brings us to Toulon, the most important naval station of France in the Mediterranean. It stands on a deep, well-sheltered bay, surrounded by hills studded with forts. Sailing onwards we pass numerous other towns, which are deserted in summer but thronged in winter. While our northern winter rages, these towns rejoice in brilliant sunshine, and the gardens and hedgerows are gay with roses and other flowers.

8. The largest town on this coast is Nice, a beautiful pleasure city, sheltered from the north winds by the seaward end of the Alps. The rocky spurs of the mountains end at the water's edge in promontories and steep cliffs, along which the road and railway have been constructed with great difficulty. A tram line runs along this road, which everywhere overhangs the blue sea, and is known as the Corniche, or Cornice. The tram rises and falls beneath steep hills, and runs amidst almost tropical foliage to Monte Carlo, which stands in the "toy state" of Monaco. This



little principality is only three miles long and nowhere more than twelve hundred yards broad. Monte Carlo is one of the loveliest spots on earth, but unhappily it is devoted to gambling. The beautiful palace in which games of chance are played is always crowded in the season. Shortly after leaving Monte Carlo we arrive at the Italian frontier.

9. To the north of Languedoc is the province of Burgundy, which must now claim our attention. The name suggests wine, and Burgundy is indeed a land of vineyards. What is called the Côte d'Or, or golden slope, is a hilly region, which at first sight seems to be unproductive. Its scanty soil, however, is very favourable to the growth of the vine, and produces grapes of a peculiar richness. Almost every inch of the hillsides is terraced, and the little fields are surrounded by stone walls. The vine is the life-blood of Burgundy, but heavy crops of vegetables are also grown.

10. In that part of Burgundy formerly known as Forez we find St. Etienne, one of the most important industrial towns of France. It stands on a tributary of the Loire, and is situated in the second largest of the French coalfields. Its hardware factories turn out great quantities of steel and iron plates, machinery, firearms, and tools. Over forty thousand people work in their own homes making ribbons, laces, and fringes.

11. Now we must move northwards from Burgundy into Champagne, which again suggests wine. On the Marne, a tributary of the Seine, stands Épernay, the centre of the champagne district. Épernay has huge caves hollowed out of the chalk hills, and in these are



stored millions of bottles of champagne. The old city of Reims, with its glorious cathedral in which the kings of France were formerly crowned, stands to the north of Épernay; and to the south of it on the Seine is Troyes, another historic town. It too has a fine cathedral, as well as manufactures of cotton, linen, and woollen goods.

12. The province known as the Isle of France receives its name from that island in the Seine which we visited during our walks in Paris. It was not merely the nucleus



IN ORLEANS.

of Paris, but the centre from which the kings of Paris extended their dominion over the whole land. On the Loire, almost due south of Paris, is the city of Orleans, which, you will remember, was relieved by Joan of Arc when besieged by the English. In the neighbourhood there is a fine forest covering thirty square miles, and much market-gardening is carried on to supply the capital.

13. North of the Isle of France is the old province of Flanders, which formerly included Belgium. What is

known as French Flanders contains the chief industrial region of France. Round about Valenciennes lies the largest and richest coalfield of the whole country, and here we find large and busy towns engaged in making iron and steel, and in weaving woollen and cotton goods.

14. We are not surprised to find weaving an important industry, for the Flemish weavers were famous long before the days of machinery. You will remember that they introduced the art into England. Valenciennes gives its name to a kind of lace, and Cambrai, another town of this district, to the fine linen known as cambric. The chief town, however, is Lille, which is one of the most strongly fortified towns in Europe. Dunkirk, near the Belgian frontier, is the sea gate of the whole region.

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## 12. THE FRENCH PEOPLE.

1. We have now made a brief survey of France, but we must not say farewell to the country without noticing the general condition and character of the French people. We already know that France is an agricultural rather than a manufacturing country, and this is due to its lack of coal and metals. About half of the people live by tilling the soil, and the greater part of the peasants own a portion at least of the soil which they till. Nor are the French a great sea-faring nation; they possess fewer ships than their neighbours the Germans. In the past they founded many great colonies—as, for instance, French Canada, which is now a part of the British Empire. They still own large possessions in Africa and Asia, as well as a number of

islands in the West Indies and the large African island of Madagascar.

2. Education is good and cheap, and France has given to the world many of its leading ideas. In recent years the French have been the first to perfect submarines, motor cars, and aeroplanes, and to supply their army with quick-firing guns. The French language is understood by all educated men. This is partly because it is clear and precise, and has been used by many great writers for three hundred years without a break. It is also due to the French armies, which in the days of Napoleon marched into all parts of Europe, and made their language familiar wherever they went.

3. Probably there is no country in the world where the great bulk of the people are richer than in France. The peasants are thrifty and save money, with which they buy land or houses or shares in the public funds. When Germany forced France to pay her the vast sum of two hundred millions sterling, the money was paid promptly, and most of it came from the savings of peasants and artisans. French women are excellent business managers. In the home the wife is supreme, and her influence over her family continues even when her sons and daughters have grown up.

4. The French are lively, clever, and industrious, and in many respects are the most highly civilized people on earth. Their tact, good taste, and politeness are renowned. They love beauty in all its forms, and they give great encouragement to the artist, the musician, the painter, and the actor. In the humbler art of cookery they have no rivals. A French housewife will make an appetizing dish

out of what a British housewife would throw away. There are no more gallant soldiers in the world than the French ; but they are excitable, and are apt to yield to the passions of the moment. Napoleon taught his countrymen to love martial glory, and the glamour of his name and fame still inspires them.

5. How did France become a state ? In olden days France was inhabited by a Celtic people known as the Gauls. The Romans conquered them, and during four and a half centuries planted civilization firmly amongst them. When the Romans became too feeble to protect their vast empire, German tribes swarmed across the Rhine and overwhelmed the Gauls. The leaders of these Germans, or Franks as we will call them, settled down in the land, and carved out estates for themselves in the fairest and most fertile districts. The most powerful of these war chiefs struggled for mastery with their fellows, and won the title of kings. The fiercer kings destroyed their rivals, and thus four or five centuries of tumult and strife passed away.

6. At length a family of remarkable men arose, who made themselves real kings. The greatest of them was Charlemagne, who extended the Frankish kingdom north, south, east, and west, until it included all Europe from the Bay of Biscay to the Carpathians, and from the North Sea to the south of Italy. He also conquered parts of Spain and what is now Austria-Hungary.

7. The East Franks, who lived east of the Rhine, and the West Franks, who lived west of the Rhine, thus formed part of the same empire, but nothing could bind them into one state. They differed too much in language, customs,



and ideas, and after Charlemagne's death the kingdom of the West Franks gradually became France, while the kingdom of the East Franks began to be Germany. In France the kings grew feebler and feebler, while the great dukes and counts became more and more powerful. At length one of the latter, who held a small dominion surrounding Paris, seized the throne.

8. His heirs struggled and fought, and their power slowly grew until they were able to make themselves in a rude sort of way the champions of law and order throughout the country. The burghers in the towns now began to throw off the yoke of their lords, and the kings helped them to secure freedom. In return the towns strengthened the hands of the kings, and gradually the royal power was extended right through the land.

9. The Hundred Years' War between France and England followed, and this time of awful misery seemed as though it would completely undo the union which had been brought about. In the end, however, it assisted in making France a nation; for it weakened the great lords, and welded the people together. A series of happy accidents, shrewd marriages, and successful plots brought the great dukedoms one by one into union with the crown, and thus France became a strong and stable state.

10. The greatest event in all French history took place in the year 1789. Then the French people rose in wrath and swept away the old order of things. They cut off their king's head, and an awful "reign of terror" followed, during which some of the most cruel scenes in all history were enacted.

11. In the midst of the tumult arose Napoleon Bonaparte, who led the French armies to victory and crowned himself Emperor of the French. Under him nearly all Europe knelt at the feet of France, and kings obeyed his beck and call. At last Napoleon was defeated, and was driven into exile. He returned, however, and ruled France for a hundred days. Meanwhile the nations of Europe were massing their armies against him. At the battle of Waterloo in Belgium



THE FIELD OF WATERLOO.

the British and the Prussians made an end of him. Next followed a very stormy period, during which three kings reigned, the last of them being driven from his throne in the year 1848.

12. Then the French set up a republic. A new Napoleon became the head of the state, and a few years later was made emperor. In 1870 came that great war with Germany to which I have already referred. France was utterly overcome: two provinces were reft from her, and she was obliged to pay two hundred million pounds in gold to the victors. Since that day France has been a republic, with a president at her head.

## Switzerland.

By John Buchan.

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### 13. GATES OF THE MOUNTAINS.

1. Now we are to make a most enchanting tour : we are to visit Switzerland, which has been called “the playground of Europe.” Every year its towns and villages are thronged with tourists, and no foreign country is so familiar to the people of other lands. Many Britons, who have never spent a week in France or in Germany, go every year to the Swiss mountains. Switzerland is a small country, but for its size it contains more natural beauties than any other land in the world.

2. Switzerland differs from other European countries in several ways. It has no natural geographical boundaries such as our own land enjoys. We can say, indeed, that it is bounded on the east and north by the Rhine, on the west by the Jura mountains, and on the south by the Alps ; but this is not quite accurate. The little canton of Schaffhausen, for example, lies on the north bank of the Rhine, and the canton of Ticino on the south side of the Alps. Nor is Switzerland a country with a single language. French, German, Italian, and a tongue called Romansch are all spoken by its peoples.

3. If you look at the map, you will see that Switzerland is divided into two kinds of country—a plain region to the north, and the great mountain region of the Alps to the south. The plain is full of little hills ; but, as compared with the Alps, it is flat. The Alps themselves, at first sight,

appear to be a wild tangle of ranges, valleys, glaciers, peaks, and passes. If, however, we look closely at the map, we shall see that they are divided into two sections by two long river valleys, running mainly east and west.

4. You have already followed the courses of the Rhone and the Rhine. You will remember that both these great rivers have their head waters in the same mountain knot, and that the Rhone runs westward to Lake Geneva, while the Rhine runs eastwards and north-eastwards to Lake Constance. We may look upon these valleys as one great trench which cuts Switzerland into two parts.

5. South of this Rhone-Rhine trench we find the Pennine Range, the main chain of the Alps; and as we travel east past the Lepontine Alps into the Canton of the Grisons, we find a number of lower chains forming a district called the Engadine. North of the Rhone valley is the cluster of lofty mountains known as the Bernese Oberland, and the ranges round the lakes of Lucerne and Zürich. North, again, lies the plain region, which runs from the Jura mountains in the west to the Lake of Constance in the east. The plain is the seat of most of the chief towns and of the leading industries.

6. Certain Swiss towns may be called "gates of the mountains." Geneva holds the keys of the Mont Blanc range and the Chamonix valley. Berne is the gate of the Bernese Oberland, with such magnificent peaks as the Jungfrau, the Mönch, and the Eiger. From Lucerne we have access to the valleys of the upper Rhone and the upper Rhine. From Zürich we can enter the Engadine with its famous health resorts, the upper Rhine valley, and the Austrian Tyrol.



7. Leaving Paris by the night train, we arrive in Geneva by nine in the morning, and having slept comfortably in what is known as a *wagon-lit* or sleeping-car, we proceed at once to explore the city. We soon discover that Geneva is the most famous of Swiss towns, and that in the Middle Ages it was a city of refuge for men who were driven out of the great European states because of their political or religious opinions. At one time John Calvin, the great Church reformer, ruled the city, and in the eighteenth century it was the home of many eminent thinkers and writers.

8. Geneva is a clean, handsome city, with fine houses and gardens. It stands at the west end of the Lake of Geneva, where the Rhone rushes out in a great torrent to begin its westerly journey to Lyons. The blue waters of the lake, and the distant snows of the mountains, make it one of the most romantic and beautiful of cities. It has a famous university and many flourishing industries, including the manufacture of watches, jewellery, and musical boxes.

9. From one of the quays of Geneva on a clear day we can see the snowy range of Mont Blanc, the monarch of European mountains. Let us journey thither. We travel by the railway from a suburb of Geneva, and following the river Arve reach the long narrow valley of Chamonix. It is overhung on the south side by the Mont Blanc range.

10. There are two excursions from Chamonix which we must make. The first is to a point far up the side of the Brévent mountain on the north side of the valley.

From this point we see Mont Blanc in all its majesty. On the left we notice needles, or aigouilles, of sharp rock, which look so steep as to be unclimbable. Nevertheless these needles have all been scaled by expert mountaineers. To the right of the needles rise long slopes of dazzling white, and far up we see the round cap of the summit.



CHAMONIX AND MONT BLANC.

11. The other excursion which we must make is up the river Arve to its source in the huge glacier known as the Mer de Glace, or Sea of Ice. If we climb to the hotel of Montanvert, we shall be able to look down on the Sea of Ice, which runs deep into the heart of the mountains. All around are the needles which we saw

from the Brévent. Most visitors cross the glacier with the help of a guide, who leads them safely between and across the deep crevasses or cracks with their mysterious green depths.

12. Far up at the head of the glacier is the pass called the Col de Géant, by which we can enter Italy. In this pass we find ourselves in the very heart of the mountains. There is not a sound save the echo of falling ice or rocks. The sky above us is as blue as the ice below, and the glare of the sun peels the skin from our faces. It is a curious experience to have our feet frozen and our bodies perspiring at one and the same time.

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#### 14. TOURS IN SWITZERLAND.

1. We now return to Geneva and take train to the delightful town of Lausanne. Here we join what is called the Jura-Simplon train and run along the shore of the lake, past many pretty little towns and the famous old castle of Chillon. It was the prison of a certain Bonivard of Geneva, who spent six long, lonely years of imprisonment in its dungeons. Our English poet Byron, who lived for some time on the shores of the lake, wrote a famous sonnet on this poor captive.

2. Soon we find ourselves ascending the Rhone valley, and occasionally obtain glimpses of the green glacier torrent sweeping in a wide channel between meadows and vineyards. We pass the town of Martigny, from which a road ascends a side valley. By this road we can cross the Great St. Bernard Pass into Italy. On the summit of the pass there

is a lonely hospice in which monks have lived for a thousand years. They devote their lives to succouring travellers who cross the pass. In winter, with the aid of their famous St. Bernard dogs, they frequently rescue wayfarers who have been overcome by cold and fatigue.

3. The railway by which we are travelling burrows beneath the Alps by means of the Simplon Tunnel, which is twelve and a quarter miles long, and was opened in 1906. We do not now travel through the tunnel, but change trains at Visp, and run twenty-two miles up a valley towards Zermatt. Now we turn a corner, and suddenly we see at the head of the valley a great black tooth of rock rising from a pedestal of snow and ice. It is our first view of the far-famed Matterhorn.

4. Zermatt, the little town at its foot, is the best known of Swiss mountain centres. It is a picturesque little place, with wooden chalets, and torrents that turn many mill wheels. If we climb or take the train to the Riffel Alp, a wooded hill to the east of the town, we shall enjoy a wonderful view. In front of us is the Matterhorn with its frowning precipices; to the west are the cruel tooth of the Dent Blanche and the beautiful fluted top of the Weisshorn. To the north we see the Dom, the highest mountain which is *wholly* in Switzerland; to the east and south rise the great slopes of Monte Rosa.

5. From the Riffel Alp we see these great mountains, in all their glory, from head to foot. First, we see the woods at their base; above them the Alpine pastures, from which comes the tinkle of many a cow-bell; then long ridges of stone sprinkled with snow; next great glaciers; and





**The Matterhorn.**

*(From the picture by Charles Wilkinson.)*

finally the ridge of rock or ice which forms the summit. Through our field-glasses we see two parties of climbers. One party is ascending Monte Rosa. With their ice axes they are cutting steps on the steep ice slope. The climbers are roped together. Only one man moves at a time, and the rope is held taut to steady him in case he should slip.

6. On the shoulder of the Matterhorn we see another party scaling the rocks. This seems to be a most difficult task; but it is not so difficult as it looks, for there are iron posts and ladders of wire to assist the climber in the steepest places. It was on yonder shoulder that a terrible accident took place during the first ascent which was made by Mr. Whymper in 1865. The rope broke, and four of the party fell several thousand feet down to the glacier below.

7. We now return to Lausanne. Some twenty miles north of the town, in a pleasant hilly district, lies the Lake of Neuchâtel, with the city of Neuchâtel at its northern end. This city is renowned, like other Swiss towns, for its schools and colleges, and also for its manufactures of watches and jewellery. The watch-making industry also gives employment to the people of the neighbouring villages.

8. Travelling due east from Neuchâtel we arrive at Bern, the capital of Switzerland. It stands on a peninsula formed by the river Aar, which flows a hundred feet below. The fine old town is full of picturesque houses and quaintly carved fountains. Many of the old streets have arcades over the pavements, so that one can go shopping on the wettest day without an umbrella. Some of the old towers have curious clocks, with figures which are set in motion at certain



#### MOUNTAINEERING.

[The uppermost picture shows a party of mountaineers crossing an ice-slope. The leading man is cutting steps with his ice-axe. The middle picture illustrates the method of using the ropes to save a member of the party who has slipped into a crevasse. In the third picture the mountaineers are seen climbing one of the *aiguilles* or needles mentioned in Lesson 13.]



hours. The bear is the badge of Bern, which really means the bear town, and there are still large bear pits in the city. Every visitor goes to see the bears, and to feed them with bunches of vegetables which are sold for the purpose.

9. Bern is the gate of the highland region known as the Bernese Oberland. From the lofty bridge over the Aar, or from one of the terraces near the Federal House of Parliament, we get a superb view of the snowy peaks stretching across the horizon. We feel the call of the mountains, and at once obey the call. A railway carries us up the valley of the Aar to the beautiful Lake of Thun. We sail along it to the eastern end, and land at the little town of Interlaken, which is so called because it stands *inter* or between the Lake of Thun and the Lake of Brienz. From Interlaken we ascend by a light railway to the village of Grindelwald, which is now famous as a centre for winter sports. At the head of the valley we see the snout of a great glacier. Around it is massed a magnificent group of snow-clad mountains.

10. If we ascend one of the lesser summits, we shall be able to enjoy a wonderful panorama. Looking south, we see on our left the Wetterhorn, with its sheer cliffs hanging over the Grindelwald chalets. Farther south rises the Schreckhorn, or "peak of terror," one of the most dangerous summits to climb; and beyond it the Finsteraarhorn, the highest point of the Oberland. To the right of the Finsteraarhorn stand three splendid summits, the Jungfrau, the Mönch, and the Eiger—that is, the Maiden, the Monk, and the Ogre. These peaks can be safely climbed only by experienced mountaineers; but a railway has now been built to a point high up on the shoulder of the Jungfrau. By



means of this railway the ordinary tourist can see something of the stark, desolate world of ice and snow.

11. Returning to Interlaken, we sail along Lake Brienz, and at its eastern end take the train across the Brünig Pass to Lucerne, one of the most picturesque and delightful towns in all Europe. It stands on the Reuss, a tributary of the Aar, and its hotels and boarding-houses fringe the shore of the lake itself. The houses of the old town are a wonderful medley of colour. Lucerne has a superb background of green woods and meadows, the blue waters of the lake, and the gleaming snows of the mountains.

12. Once upon a time the glaciers of the Alps covered Lucerne, and you may see in the "Glacier Garden" a number of "pot holes" which were scooped out of the softer rock by the churning of the hard rocks carried by the glaciers. Near this garden you may also see the "Lion of Lucerne," a beautiful carving in memory of the Swiss guards who died in defence of their master, Louis the Sixteenth, when he was attacked by the people of Paris in the year 1792.

13. You cannot picture anything more lovely than the Lake of Lucerne. Its waters are of the deepest blue, its wooded shores are green and varied, and the play of sunshine and shadow on its surface is full of charm. The lake is shaped like a crooked cross, and is forty-four square miles in area. Let us make a little steamboat tour. To our right is the summit of the Rigi, and on our left is Mount Pilatus, both of which may be ascended by a mountain railway, and afford splendid views of mile after mile of snow-clad peaks.

14. At the end of the lake we meet the railway which

runs into Italy by the St. Gotthard Pass. This famous pass is now crossed by a railway, which traverses more than three hundred and sixty bridges and runs through no less than eighty tunnels, one of which is over nine miles long. Its construction was a wonderful engineering feat, and the St.



LUCERNE AND MOUNT PILATUS.

Gotthard Railway is now one of the main roads from the cities of Europe to Italy. It took more than ten years to make, and cost more than ten millions of money.

15. It is the physical character of Switzerland that has made it a nation. It has been said that the mountains are the abode of freedom. Why this should be so is not difficult

to understand. A wild mountainous country is not only very difficult for an army to traverse, but it affords many positions in which a few resolute, well-armed men can defy thousands. Further, mountainous countries produce very little food, and armies cannot live on them.

16. The Swiss were conquered, after a long and fierce warfare, by the Romans. When that great power fell Switzerland became one of the possessions of the Austrian house of Hapsburg. There were, however, even then, little free states or cantons in the mountain valleys, and in 1291 they joined in a league for self-defence, and fought many fierce battles with the Austrians. The old legend of William Tell belongs to this period. Unhappily we have no proof that this hero wrought the famous deeds that have adorned many a song and story. We cannot be sure that there even was such a person.

17. If you were to visit the village of Morgarten, which stands at the eastern end of a lovely lake to the east of Zug, on November 16 of any year, you would notice the people holding a solemn service. This is to commemorate the first great defeat of the Austrians. The battle was fought in the year 1315.

18. There were many equally stubborn battles to be fought before Swiss independence was finally secured. The last of them took place in the year 1499. Henceforward, until the days of Napoleon, Switzerland remained free. The "Little Corsican" subdued the land, but when his shadow passed from Europe the Swiss once more recovered their freedom, and set up the form of government under which they now live.

19. After the fall of Napoleon his conquerors agreed that Switzerland should always be independent, and that they would fight, if necessary, to keep it so. I think you can understand the reason for this. Most of the great routes from Northern to Southern Europe run through Switzerland, and it is most important that the country should be in the hands of a people whose only desire is to live at peace with their neighbours. The other nations of Europe are, therefore, content to let the Swiss be independent, so that the routes of travel shall not be disturbed.

20. Switzerland is now not so much a single state as a series of little republics, which are united together for all common purposes. Even when laws are proposed for the whole country, any eight cantons can demand that they shall be voted on by the whole of the men over twenty-one years of age. This plan is called the Referendum. Every young man is trained to military service, and the training begins at twenty years of age.

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## The German Empire.

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### 15. A GENERAL VIEW.

1. Leaving Switzerland at Basel we enter Germany, the home of the youngest, and perhaps the greatest, nation on the continent of Europe. A glance at the map shows us Germany as the central state of the continent. On all sides save the north she has land boundaries, and three of the great European Powers are her neighbours. France lies to the west, Austria to the south, and Russia to the east.



2. From west, south, and east, Germany has always been liable to invasion. This constant danger, however, has been a blessing in disguise. It has made the German people energetic and self-reliant, and has forced the many states of Germany into union. Prince Bismarck, the great German statesman, well expressed this fact when he said, "God has placed us in such a position that our neighbours prevent us from falling into stagnation or idleness."

3. I need not tell you that a nation's trade largely depends upon its geographical position. Just as England's position on an island in the centre of the land hemisphere has made her a market for the whole world, so Germany's position in the middle of Europe has given her a very large share in the trade of the continent. Quite one-half of Germany's foreign trade is with neighbouring countries.

4. She is not so well placed, however, for oversea trade. Less than one-third of her frontier lies along the sea. Three-fourths of the coast fronts the Baltic Sea, and is low, with many dunes and few deep havens. Were it not for the estuaries of the great rivers, this coast would be very sparsely populated. Further, parts of the Baltic are frozen for three or four months in the year, and the harbours can only be kept open by ice-breakers.

5. Formerly ships from the Baltic coast of Germany could only reach the ocean by passing through the narrow and easily-blocked straits between Denmark and Sweden. This difficulty, however, has been lessened by the construction of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal from Kiel to the mouth of the Elbe. It is the remaining fourth of the coast which is all important

to Germany. This coast fronts the ice-free North Sea, which gives access to all the oceans of the world.

6. Now let us look at the surface of the land. If we travel in Germany, we shall find almost every kind of scenery. All along its northern sea-coast stretch great plains which extend inland for about one hundred and eighty miles. These are the German lowlands, and they are really a continuation of that great European plain about which we read in an earlier lesson. Here we find pastures and cornfields, moors and forests, lakes and fens.

7. South of the lowlands lie the highlands of Central Germany, consisting of a series of ranges some six hundred miles long. Through these ranges break great rivers such as the Rhine and the Elbe, flowing towards the North Sea, and the Danube, which runs eastward to the Black Sea. Many of the hills in this highland region are forest clad. They give birth to hundreds of streams which are useless for navigation, but provide plenty of power for the important industries carried on in the valleys.

8. Turn to your map and learn the names of some of the ranges in this highland region. You will find the key to them in the Fichtelgebirge, or Fir Mountains. Striking off from them in a north-westerly direction is the Thuringian Forest, to the west of which we see the Taunus Range. You will notice that other ranges continue the line of the Thuringian Forest towards the west. Farther north is another line of highlands, the most easterly part of which is known as the Harz Mountains. These consist of tablelands bordered by granite hills and deeply scored with beautiful valleys.



**German Children at Play.**  
(From the picture by A. Plinke. By permission of Mr. Franz Hufstaengl.)

9. The highest summit of the Harz Mountains is the Brocken, which in days gone by was thought to be the abode of evil spirits, and the trysting-place of witches, who assembled from all parts of the world on the night of April 30th in each year to hold their unholy revels. Probably some of these wonderful tales have their origin in a strange sight sometimes to be seen on the summit of the Brocken. A huge figure appears in the mist; it looks ghostly enough to frighten the ignorant, but it is only the shadow of the spectator cast upon the screen of mist by the rising or setting sun.

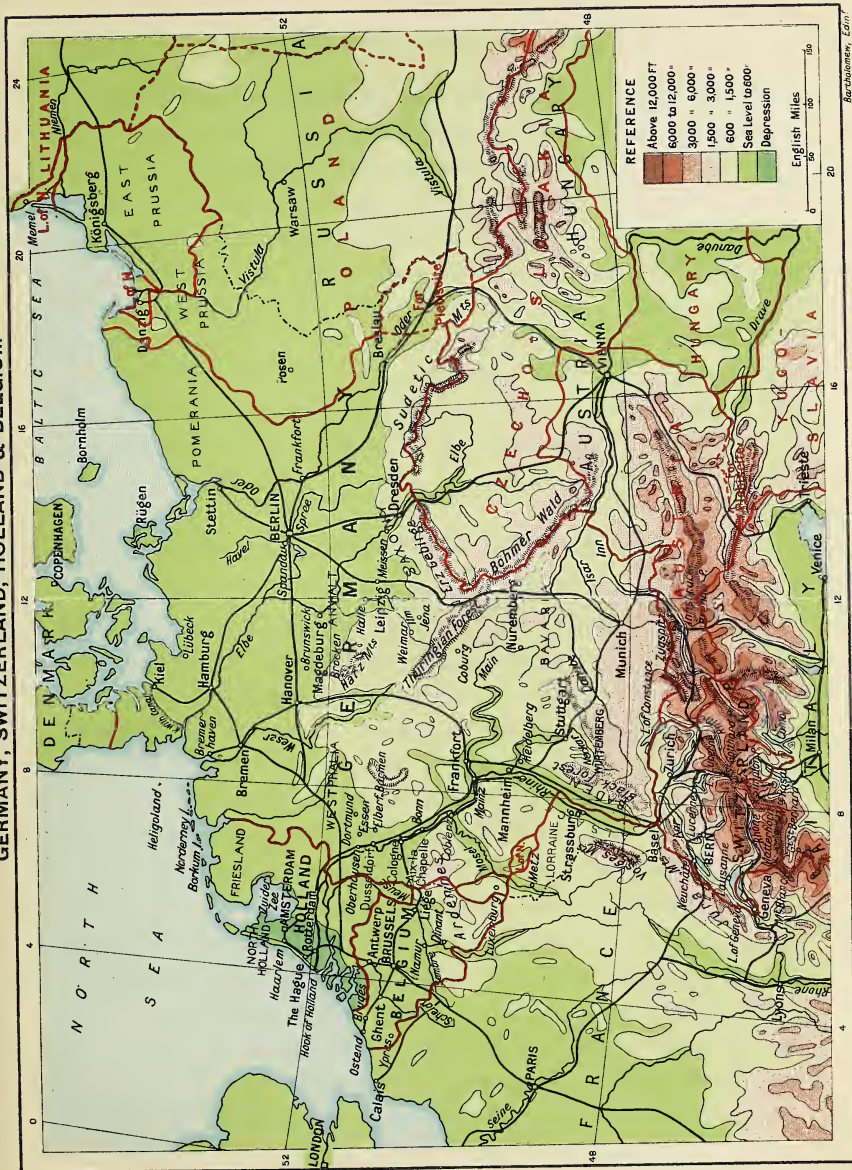
10. Running north-east from the Fichtelgebirge we see the Erzgebirge, or Ore Mountains, which form one side of the lozenge of highlands enclosing the plateau of Bohemia. On the western side of this lozenge is the Böhmerwald, or Bohemian Forest, which separates Bavaria from Bohemia. Beyond the Ore Mountains, trending south-east we notice the Riesengebirge, or Giant Mountains, and these are continued by the Sudetic Mountains.

11. Extending southwards from the Thuringian Forest is South Germany, which chiefly consists of Bavaria, a plateau more than a thousand feet high. As we proceed farther south the land rapidly rises until we reach the Alps, which form the boundary of Germany on the south.

12. Germany, as you know, is a young state, for it has only existed in its present form since the great war of 1870-1. At the beginning of the nineteenth century there were over three hundred different states in what we call the German Empire. It now consists of a union of twenty-five states and the two provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, which



# GERMANY, SWITZERLAND, HOLLAND & BELGIUM



Present Boundaries shown in Red



France yielded to Germany after the war. These states are of various kinds. Some are kingdoms, such as Prussia and Bavaria; some are grand-duchies, such as Baden; others are duchies, principalities, and free states. Together these states form the German Empire.

13. Prussia is the largest of the states, and occupies nearly two-thirds of the whole empire. Some of the principalities of Central Germany are very small, and twelve of them taken together are only as large as our English county of Yorkshire. Ten different states can actually be seen from some of the hilltops.

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## 16. THE GERMAN LOWLANDS.

1. If we travel along the coast, we shall find the land very low, especially along the coast of the North Sea. Inland, our eye ranges across miles of marshes and sand dunes. Off the coast there are huge banks of sand and mud. Some parts of the mainland are below the level of the sea, as in Holland, and have to be protected by dikes. On the west coast of Schleswig-Holstein, the most northerly province of Prussia, land is now being reclaimed from the sea.

2. Hundreds of small islands lie off the coast. In the North Sea they are many and small; in the Baltic Sea, they are few and large. The chief of Germany's North Sea islands are Norderney and Borkum, both favourite summer resorts. Off the mouth of the Elbe is the island of Heligoland, which was a British possession until 1890, when it was handed over to Germany in exchange for territory in East Africa. Heligoland is now covered with fortifications for



**The Port of Hamburg at Sunset.**

*(From the picture by F. Kallmorgen. By permission of the Berlin Photographic Company.)*



the protection of the Elbe estuary. In the Baltic Sea the largest forest-clad island is Rügen. It also belongs to Germany, and is visited every summer by thousands of tourists.

3. Now let us travel inland. We first notice that the lowlands contain the principal lake region of Germany. In Pomerania, East Prussia, and West Prussia there are hundreds of lakes, some of which are very large. Many of these lakes are united by canals, and form useful trade routes. Such goods as grain, fruit, bricks, and coal are punted along these waterways in long, shallow boats.

4. The best way to obtain a good idea of North Germany is to travel from west to east, noting the large rivers and the towns which stand on them. The German rivers are of enormous value for trade. They are united by canals, so as to provide no less than 8,600 miles of navigable water, and upon them ply thousands of craft of all kinds.

5. We have already followed the course of the great river Rhine, which has its mouth in Holland. We therefore pass on to the first purely German river of the west—namely, the Weser, which enters the sea at Bremerhaven. Some distance up its valley is the old free town of Bremen, and still farther up, near its right bank is Hanover, which was for more than a hundred years connected with the British crown. Most of the raw cotton used in German mills is landed at Bremen or at Bremerhaven, and from the latter port most German emigrants set sail. The deepening of the river between Bremen and the sea will allow the largest vessels to come up to its quays.

6. Farther east we reach the Elbe, the only other great German river to enter the North Sea. It rises in numerous

streams which flow from the southern side of the Riesen-gebirge or Giant Mountains in Bohemia. The main stream breaks through the mountains, and rolls north-west through Saxony and Prussia. As it flows during its lower course through very flat country it is subject to heavy floods, and high dikes have to be raised to keep it within bounds. An important town in the valley is Magdeburg, which is one of the chief seats of the beet-sugar industry.

7. The great city of the Elbe valley is Hamburg, which stands at the head of its estuary. You already know that it is the largest port of continental Europe. It is a town of great wealth, and one of the three free cities of the German Empire. The others are Bremen and Lübeck. If you visit the city you will be struck by its many fine buildings, its beautiful public parks, and the canals, or *fleeten*, which penetrate it in all directions. Owing to the large trade with Great Britain, the English language is almost as familiar to the Hamburg merchants as their mother tongue.

8. Still travelling east we reach the Oder, the first important river flowing into the Baltic Sea. In its course through the plain it passes the cities of Breslau, Frankfort, and the prosperous seaport of Stettin. Like the Elbe, the Oder suffers from floods, and in some places dikes twenty feet high have been built to restrain the overflowing waters.

9. The last great river as we proceed eastward is the Vistula, which enters the Baltic Sea at Danzig. It rises in the Carpathian Mountains, and for a large part of its course flows in Austrian and Russian territory. It, too, is liable to terrible floods, and, owing to the amount of silt which it carries, enters the sea by a kind of delta. Danzig,

the port at its mouth, is an ancient and beautifully situated city, with a large trade in grain and timber.

10. Berlin, the capital of the German Empire, is in the lowlands, but at no great distance from the foothills of Central Germany. It stands on the river Spree, a tributary of the Havel, which flows into the Elbe. Berlin is situated on a vast, sandy, monotonous plain in what is called the Mark of Brandenburg. Close to the city, however, the monotony of the scenery is redeemed by a wide expanse of pine forests, among which are many charming lakes.

11. Owing to its central position between the two great rivers, the Elbe and the Oder, Berlin has become a city of great industrial importance. It is also one of the handsomest as well as one of the largest capitals of Europe. If we approach it through the Tiergarten, a public park, we enter by the Brandenburg Gate, a model on a small scale of a very famous and ancient Greek building. On the top of the gate stands a bronze group representing "Victory." It was carried away by Napoleon, but restored by Blücher, the German general who helped Wellington to defeat the "Terror of Europe" at Waterloo.

12. From the Brandenburg Gate runs the famous Unter den Linden, or avenue of lime trees. Along its sides we find the residences of the great officers of state and of the ambassadors, the chief shops and hotels, a university, the Royal Opera House, and, at the farthest end, the Royal Palace. It is doubtful whether any other city can boast such a magnificent array of stately buildings. The avenue is nearly a mile long.

13. Berlin is one of the best governed of European cities.



# VIEWS IN BERLIN.

1. The Cathedral, and general view. 2. The Brandenburg Gate. 3. The Royal Palace. 4. Unter den Linden.



Great pains have been taken to make it the worthy capital of a great empire. In summer and in fine weather it presents a very gay and brilliant appearance. Its most attractive suburb is Charlottenburg, which lies about four miles to the west. It is one of the garden cities of Prussia, and a favourite place of residence for the richer classes. Charlottenburg contains a castle, a famous technical university, and a beautiful wild park in which stands the tomb of Queen Louise, the true founder of modern Prussia.

14. Wherever you go in Berlin you see soldiers and things military. Not only are famous regiments stationed in the city, but the town of Spandau, a few miles to the west, is an armed camp. In its citadel rises the Julius tower, containing the famous "war-chest" which holds six million pounds sterling. This sum is always ready for use in the event of war.

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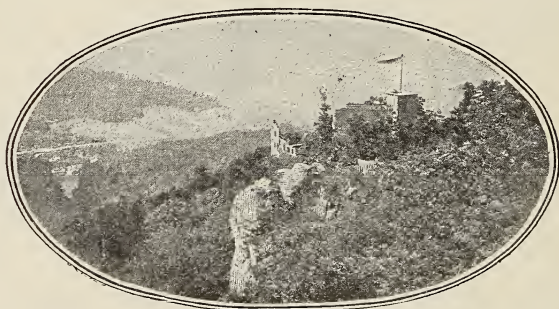
## 17. CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN GERMANY.

1. You already know that Central Germany is the high-land region of the empire, and that such rivers as the Elbe and the Rhine force their way through the hill ranges on their journey to the sea. We have already followed the courses of these rivers, and have also learnt something of the Danube, which rises in South-West Germany.

2. You will remember that some of these hill ranges are known as *walds*, or forests. If we travel in Central Germany we shall see that most of the hills are thickly clad with pines, and sometimes with beech and oak. Among the best-known forests are the Black Forest and the Thuringian

Forest. The Black Forest is so called because of its dark pines and firs. It covers the region between Heidelberg on the north and Basel on the south ; most of it lies within the Grand-Duchy of Baden. More than a third of Baden, Württemberg, and Bavaria is covered with forests.

3. A hardy and industrious race of people live in this region. Many of them are clock-makers and wood-carvers, and their products are found all over the world. Other



IN THE BLACK FOREST.

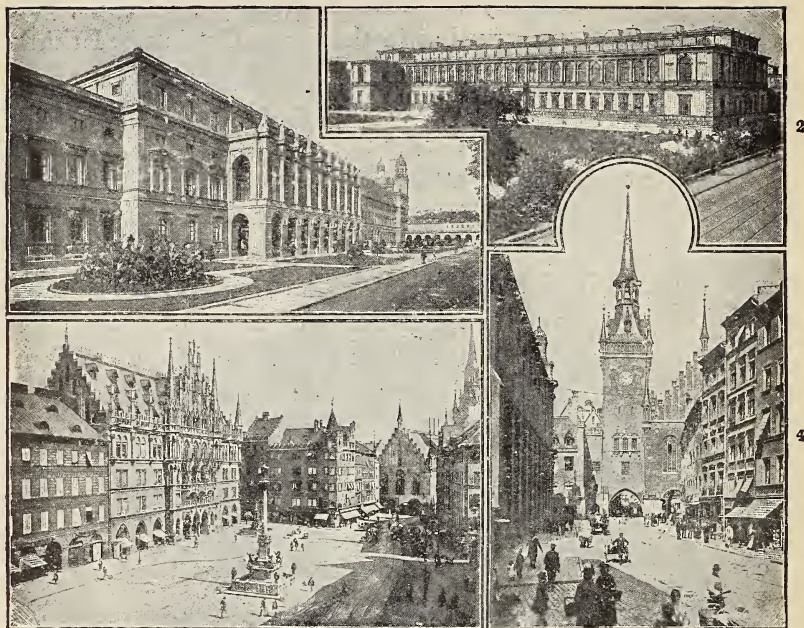
industries, such as iron-working and straw-hat making, also employ large numbers of people. The charcoal burner is a common figure in the woods, but most of the forest dwellers are engaged in felling trees and transporting them to the rivers. You already know that large rafts of this lumber may be seen floating down the Rhine.

4. Scarcely half of the German forests belong to private owners. One-third is the property of the different states, and a considerable part is owned by towns and villages. The people of many of the small towns and villages in this region have the right of cutting wood for fuel in the forests.

Nowhere in Germany are the old manners, customs, and legends so well preserved as in the forest districts. I think you can guess the reason why. The inhabitants are cut off by the nature of the country from the rest of the world, and have changed little during the centuries.

5. One of the most attractive of the forests is the Thuringian Forest, which lies in the very heart of Central Germany. One of the chief towns in this district is Weimar, which stands in the beautiful valley of the river Ilm. The public squares contain monuments of some of Germany's greatest scholars and poets. Not far off is Jena, an ancient university town, where the great poet Schiller was for some years a professor. Near to the town is the battlefield on which Napoleon in 1806 all but destroyed the Prussian army. A Thuringian town of great interest to us is Coburg, which stands in the midst of very picturesque country. All British people remember it as the home of Prince Albert, the husband of Queen Victoria.

6. Eastwards of this region we find the little kingdom of Saxony, round about the upper waters of the river Elbe. Its capital is Dresden, one of the most beautiful cities of Europe. The old town lies on the left bank of the Elbe, and the new town on the right bank of the river. Dresden has a noble picture gallery, containing Raphael's famous picture, the Sistine Madonna. Further down the river from Dresden is the town of Meissen, where the famous Dresden china has been made for more than two hundred years. Quite near Dresden is a very beautiful piece of country, known as the Saxon Switzerland. It is quite Alpine in character, but lacks the snow and ice.



VIEWS IN MUNICH.

1. New Palace. 2. Old Picture Gallery. 3. New Rathaus. 4. Old Rathaus.

7. Southern Germany lies between the hilly region which I have described and the great northern chain of the Alps. The most interesting place in Bavaria is the old city of Nuremberg, which stands high up on the plateau not far from the river Main, a tributary of the Rhine. In Nuremberg you are back in the Middle Ages, amidst irregular narrow streets with high gabled houses and quaint arcades. A crumbling wall with round towers still surrounds the city, and there are many fine old churches.



8. A beautiful fountain in the market-place is renowned, and so is the house in which the great painter, Albrecht Dürer, was born. Nuremberg has been a place of trade for centuries, and it is still flourishing. Many of the toys which we see in our shops come from Nuremberg ; it has also great manufactures of wood and metal goods.

9. The capital of Bavaria is the city of Munich, the most important town in South Germany, and the third city of the Empire. It stands on the river Isar "rolling rapidly" from the Tyrolese Alps to the Danube. Munich stands in the very centre of the great Bavarian plateau, and is one of the best built and cleanest cities in the world. It is the home of German music and art, and its art galleries, academies, and theatres are the most celebrated in the land. In Munich we find the chief South German university.

10. Thirty miles south of Munich we enter a lovely mountain country leading up to the high Alps through a region of curiously-carved rocky peaks overlooking green valleys and clear blue lakes. This is the holiday ground of South Germany, and in summer the valleys are filled with happy and merry tourists. The South German is a better holiday maker than his northern brother, and you see him at his best in this district.

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## 18. THE GERMAN PEOPLE AND THEIR WORK.

1. The great bulk of the German people belong to the Teutonic race. As far back as the fourth century after the birth of Christ, Germanic or Teutonic tribes were moving about what is now Germany and part of France. To the

east of these peoples were the Slavs, who were ever forcing them farther westwards. By slow degrees, however, the Germans drove back the Slavonic invaders.

2. We can still find relics of these old invaders in the empire of Germany. In the east, in what was once part of Poland, we find a large number of Slav people. In North Germany, and in what is called the Wendish district, south of Berlin, and in the Prussian province of Pomerania, many of the people are of Slav origin. In the west there is a mixture of French blood. Nevertheless, the inhabitants of the German empire who do not speak German only number one-twelfth of the whole.

3. As a rule, the German people are industrious, thrifty, and home-loving. The German is slow in thought and action compared with the Frenchman, and reserved in speech and conduct as compared with the Italian. He is, perhaps, the most easily disciplined person in the world. He makes an excellent soldier, and in civil life he does not mind being governed by rules and regulations which we should think very burdensome.

4. The outstanding virtues of the Germans are their immense patience and industry and attention to detail. The Germans have not been so fruitful in invention as either the French or the British, but they have seized upon the inventions and discoveries of other nations, and have applied and developed them to a greater extent than any other people.

5. If we travel through Germany, we shall find that there are many differences in character between the people of one region and those of another. Thus, the Prussians,

who are Saxons, are stronger and more hard-headed than other Germans. They are patient and determined and very practical. Poetry and art do not greatly appeal to them, but they are devoted to science. The Frankish people in the Rhine valley are more lively and pleasure loving, and are fonder of art and music.

6. In Central Germany we find the Thuringians and Swabians, who are a mixture of the Frank and the Saxon. The Thuringians are hard-working and prosperous ; but they are also fond of company, gay and pleasant in manner, and have a great love of poetry and of nature. The Swabians, too, are an artistic people, but are also energetic and enterprising.

7. The Bavarians, or South Germans, are not so practical as the Saxons. They are not energetic and plodding like the people of the north, but love an easy life and are fond of amusement. Agriculture and grazing have been the occupations of the people for ages. The Bavarian peasant is often a well-to-do man, and he has a very good opinion of himself. He delights in fine clothes and still wears his national costume. In his loose jacket, short breeches, gaudy stockings, befeathered hat, silver chains, and ribbons he cuts a very picturesque figure.

8. More than three-fifths of the inhabitants of Germany are Protestants, and more than one-third are Roman Catholics. The north is almost wholly Protestant ; the Roman Catholics are found chiefly in Bavaria, Baden, and Alsace-Lorraine.

9. Germany is still very largely an agricultural country, though it cannot now produce all the food needed by its

ever-growing population. The great granaries of the country are Prussia and Bavaria, which provide four-fifths of the grain produced in the empire. Prussia has a bad climate and a poor soil, and produces four times as much rye as wheat. The grain chiefly used for bread in Germany is rye, and the word *corn* always means rye to a German.

10. Second only to agriculture comes the mineral wealth of Germany. The country is very rich in coal and iron. The coal is not always of the highest quality, but, as a rule, the mines are not so deep as those of Great Britain. The chief coalfields are in Westphalia, in the west, and Silesia, in the south-east. There are also important coal measures in Saxony and in the neighbourhood of Aix-la-Chapelle. Iron is found near the coal, and also to a large extent, though of poor quality, in Lorraine. The home supply, however, is not now sufficient, and ore is imported from other countries. Coal, however, is very plentiful, and is exported.

11. The great centre of the German iron and steel trade is on the borders of the Westphalian coalfield, where we find such important towns as Düsseldorf, Essen, Oberhausen, and Dortmund. This district is the workshop of Germany, and its products rival those of Birmingham and Sheffield. Essen contains the famous Krupp steel works, while most of the other industries—such as cotton, woollen, silk, and linen—are widely distributed.

12. Science is the handmaid of German industry. Patient students are constantly at work finding out new methods of production, and how to utilize the waste materials of the factories. In the chemical industry the



Germans have been specially successful, and they now lead the world. The chief centres of the chemical industry are Elberfeld, Barmen, and Mannheim. The manufacture of beet sugar is carried on in the Halle and Magdeburg districts of Prussia, and in Brunswick and Anhalt. We have no space to deal with the lesser industries, such as wood-working, and the book trade, which is most important at Leipzig in Saxony and at Stuttgart in Würtemberg. Twice every year great fairs are held at Leipzig, and are attended by buyers and sellers from all parts of the world.

13. Before we close this chapter a few words must be said about the government of Germany. The Kaiser is King of Prussia and head of the whole empire. It is he who makes war or peace, and he is commander-in-chief of the united German forces. Each of the different states of the empire manages its own affairs, and is represented in the Bundesrath, or Federal Council. The Parliament of Germany is elected like our own, and is known as the Reichstag.

14. You already know that Germany needs a huge army, because she is surrounded on all sides by powerful nations. Germany is now the greatest military country of Europe. From his twentieth to his twenty-seventh year every German is liable to serve in the standing army, and afterwards up to the age of forty-five in the reserve. In time of war Germany can call up some five millions of trained men. She is now building a great fleet of warships, and is showing such activity that Britain is forced to add constantly to her navy in order to maintain her position as mistress of the seas.

## Holland.

By D. S. Meldrum, author of "Holland and the Hollanders."

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### 19. "POLDERLAND."

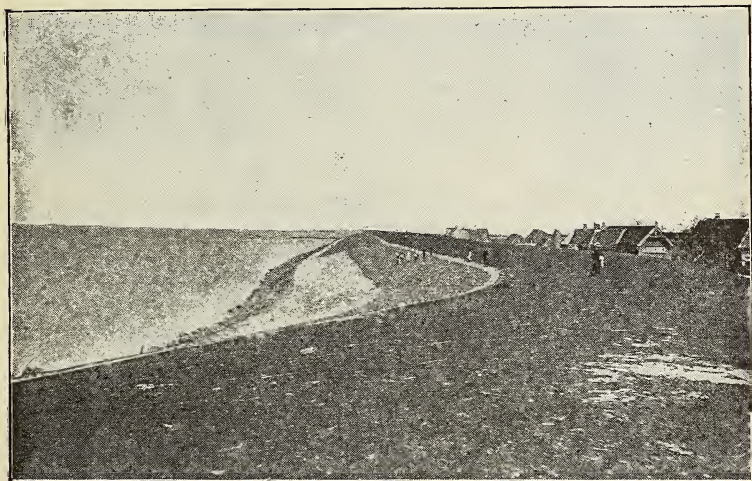
1. The North German Plain, which has been described in a former lesson, extends to the North Sea. The western portion of it forms the Low Countries. Two states—Holland, or the Netherlands, and Belgium—occupy this region, which has been built up during the course of ages by the sand, grit, gravel, and loam brought down by the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt and deposited at the place where the rivers formerly met and fought the sea. As Holland and Belgium are largely formed out of the Alps, and the soil of Germany, it is fitting that we should visit these countries at this point in our "Grand Tour."

2. If we approach Holland by sea, we find a low range of sand dunes all along the coast. Could our eye follow the course of these dunes, we should discover that they stretch from near Calais to Cape Skagen in Denmark. Behind the dunes is the "Hollowland," most of which is at or below sea-level, and would be under water twice a day but for the protection which the sand dunes afford.

3. The dunes do not stretch unbrokenly along the coast of Holland. Gaps appear at intervals, and through them the rivers flow into the sea. The coastline of sandhills runs along the islands formed by the different branches of the three rivers already mentioned, and also along the chain of islands which you will see in the north of the country.

There the dunes have been pierced by the sea, which has scooped out the softer lands behind them, leaving shallow waters in their place.

4. The largest of these waters is the Zuider Zee, or South Sea, so called to distinguish it from the North Sea, of which it forms an arm. Round the unprotected coasts of the Zuider Zee and other inland waters, as well as at those



THE DIKE NEAR HARLINGEN.

points where the dunes are low and weak, the Dutch have built great concrete-faced dikes to complete the ring of defences against their old foe, the sea.

5. These, however, are not the only dikes which the Dutch have had to build to prevent themselves and their homes from being washed away. The rivers which have created the hollow part of Holland would spread over the

land and turn it again into a morass if they were not kept within fixed channels. Not only have the Dutch built dikes to shut out the sea, but also dikes to shut in the rivers. Often when walking in the meadows of these lowlands we may see the sails of boats appearing high above the dikes. When we see this we realize at once how far the land lies below the level of the rivers and canals.

6. Then, again, there are smaller dikes which enclose what are called the polders, or reclaimed land. Polders are of three kinds. Some are so low that they have to be protected from high water by dikes. In this sense the whole western part of Holland is a polder, and "polderland" is a name frequently given to it. Within this low land there are natural meres and lakes, and also hollows formed by the removal of beds of peat for fuel. These in turn become inland waters. A great many of these lakes and peat hollows have been drained and turned into productive land, and these form polders of the second kind.

7. Let me tell you how a polder of this character is made. First, a canal is dug round the lake and connected with an existing waterway. Then on the inner side of the canal a dike is constructed, and on it is placed powerful pumping machinery. The water of the lake is pumped over the dike into the canal, to be drained away ultimately to the sea. In this way polders within a polder are created.

8. The third kind of polder is formed *outside* the sea-dike. Every day at high tide the sea deposits against the dike a small quantity of clay. As years go by this accumulates,



and when it becomes sufficiently extensive it is enclosed by a dike. At first it is no more than a quaking bank, but it dries slowly, and is planted and tilled. The horses used in the work are shod with planks of wood, to prevent them from sinking into the soft soil. At length a sea polder of this kind becomes a new stretch of fertile fields and juicy meadows.

9. We have now learned enough about the formation of Holland to understand that its inhabitants are engaged in a daily fight with river and sea. In some places the water steals land from them, while in other places they steal land from the water. For a long time past they have gained more than they have lost, but much has still to be recovered before the losses of past years are made good. The balance will be on the side of the Dutch if their dream of forming a great polder out of the Zuider Zee is ever realized.

10. In order to keep what they already possess, the Dutch must be constantly on the watch. A small breach in one of the dikes, if undetected, might lead to a terrible disaster. The danger is specially great when the ice on the rivers breaks up in the spring. The Dutch are well aware of the need for constant care and watchfulness, and a department of state, such as is found in no other country, supervises the works of defence against water. At its head is a minister of the Crown, who is known as the minister of *Water-staat*.

11. The life of the Dutch in these peculiar watery conditions has had a great effect on their history in the past, and still influences them in the present. Confined to a

corner of Europe, and shut up in little groups within their polder dikes, they have naturally kept to ways of their own. Their history for centuries was that of quarrels and fights amongst themselves about local rights. Yet, in spite of all this, they grew rich. The great rivers flowing through their country, and the numerous canals connected with these rivers, enabled Dutch merchants to carry on a great trade with countries far inland.

12. The fishermen on the coast became the envy of their neighbours, especially after they had invented a method of curing herring at sea. The Dutch fishermen became the best of sailors, and the coast towns became crowded with coasting vessels. Thus the Low Countries became a source of great wealth to their rulers. When, therefore, the Dutch revolted against Philip of Spain they were not only a strong and liberty-loving people, but so flourishing that Philip could not afford to let them go. In the grim fight that followed, the Northern Provinces, now known as Holland, were united by William of Orange, and were able to cast off the yoke of Spain.

13. Dutch sailors now began to rove the seas of the world, and, in the teeth of Spain, they established those trading posts in the East Indies and West Indies which developed into great overseas possessions. Weavers and other craftsmen left their Flemish homes to settle in the Dutch cities where they were free from oppression. After eighty years of struggle the Dutch found themselves not only a free people, but one of the greatest powers of the world.

14. The effort, however, had been too much for them.

They had not the resources wherewith to keep it up, and they found that they had grasped power only to let it go. The proud republic of the provinces came to an inglorious end after the French Revolution. Much trouble and unrest followed, and not until 1830 was the modern kingdom of Holland formed.



A DUTCH VILLAGE.

15. The House of Orange, which had always supplied the republic with its first citizen, now gave it a sovereign. Queen Wilhelmina, the present queen, is descended from William the Silent, who was the first Stadhouder—a name which simply means "the keeper of the town." She rules by means of two Houses of Parliament which are in many respects similar to our own.

## 20. DUTCH CITIES AND DUTCH PEOPLE.

1. Let us pay a visit to Rotterdam, the great port of Holland. If we sail from England to the Hook of Holland, we shall enter the New Waterway, which, at great cost, has been constructed from the city to the sea. This waterway is kept sufficiently deep to float the largest ocean-going vessels. All the way up to Rotterdam we pass dock after dock carved out of the low green shores. Every year fresh meadows are required for the construction of these docks. This fact alone gives us a good idea of the enormous growth of Rotterdam's trade.

2. We land, and walk into the city. Our attention is at once attracted by the large number of low wagons mounted on small iron wheels which make an intolerable noise as they pass along the cobbled streets. There are thousands upon thousands of these lorries, which are built low so as to make loading and unloading easy. Upon inquiry we learn that by far the greatest part of Rotterdam's traffic is in the transshipment of goods between ocean-going ships and the Rhine barges, which are also numbered by the thousand. The noisy iron-wheeled lorries carry goods of all sorts from the barges to the ships and *vice versa*. Rotterdam is one of the most important gateways of trade between Germany and the rest of the world.

3. The largest city of Holland is Amsterdam, which is connected with the North Sea by a canal fifteen miles long. This waterway, which admits ships of the largest size, has enabled Amsterdam to maintain its place as the great



market for tobacco, coffee, spices, and other products of the Dutch colonies. Amsterdam is not only a port, but a place of many industries. No less than ten thousand persons, mainly Jews, are employed in the cutting and polishing of diamonds. Nearly three million pounds worth of these precious stones has been exported in a single year, chiefly to the United States of America.

4. Amsterdam has a wonderful situation. It has been called the "Northern Venice," because it is divided by the river Amstel and by numerous semicircular canals, one within the other, into one hundred islands connected by three hundred bridges. Almost the whole city is built on piles, which have been driven many feet through soft peat and into the underlying clay. The streets are lively, the churches are numerous, old buildings are plentiful, and seen from the harbour or the high bridge over the Amstel, the city presents a most interesting and unusual appearance.

5. The Hague, which is the court capital, stands two miles from the North Sea, and is a very handsome place. Although it is an old town and full of old buildings, it looks new and elegant. Its charm lies in the greenery of the streets and squares, and of the woods that adjoin it. The Houses of Parliament meet in the old halls of the Binnenhof—a name associated with many stirring events in the history of Holland. On the coast is the watering-place Scheveningen, which is crowded with visitors during the summer months. The people of The Hague also flock to it for music and bathing, and in the evening, when the day's work is over, the whole population seems to be making its way along the wooded road which leads to the sea.

6. The Dutch are a nation of farmers and gardeners. The dairy farmers dwell in the deep polders of the west and north, where their cattle graze on rich green meadows, stretching far and wide, as level as a billiard table, and marked off by ditches instead of hedges. The milk is sent by road or canal to the factories, where it is made into butter, which is taken to the ports and shipped to foreign markets. In Friesland and North Holland the factories manufacture cheese also; but elsewhere the farmers' wives still make their own butter, and sell it to merchants in the cities.

7. Ten miles west of Amsterdam is Haarlem, which was celebrated for its trade in the seventeenth century, and was the home of Laurens Coster, who, according to the Dutch, was the inventor of printing. Haarlem has still some important manufactures; but it is now renowned all over the world for tulips, hyacinths, and other bulbs. Round about the town are extensive market gardens, which display a wonderful wealth of colour in the season. The Dutch are the best bulb growers in the world, and every year they export bulbs valued at about a quarter of a million pounds of our money.

8. The Dutch are strong believers in education, and they plan their schools with the greatest care. As few foreigners will take the trouble to learn their language, they become very quick in picking up the tongues of other peoples. There are no fewer than five universities in this small country, and they contain a large number of students in proportion to the population.

9. Many of the people still live in their old-fashioned

way, though great changes are taking place and the old mode of life is fast disappearing. The fishermen on the coast and on the islands still preserve their quaint old customs and their odd costumes. So do the farmers in the remoter parts of the country. The gold helmet, which was the head-dress of Friesland women ages ago, is still worn; and fishermen from the isle of Urk in the Zuider



CHILDREN OF MARKEN, HOLLAND.

Zee still appear in the streets of Amsterdam wearing the wide breeches which always amuse strangers.

10. The old sports still linger, and horse-trotting matches, which were introduced from Holland into the United States, are common. Many Dutch farmers still breed a special type of trotting horse. Skating may still be called the national sport, but in the towns football is almost the only game that is played.

## Belgium.

By Hilaire Belloc, author of "The Path to Rome," etc.

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### 21. THE COCKPIT OF EUROPE.

1. Between Holland and France lies the country of Belgium. It is one of the smallest countries in the world, yet it is very rich and most interesting. At its greatest length it is no longer than the distance between London and Liverpool, and the extent of its sea-coast is less than the distance between London and Brighton. The five northern counties of England cover a greater area than the whole of Belgium.



THE BELFRY OF BRUGES.

2. We already know that the coast is low and sandy and fringed with dunes. There are only two harbours—Nieuport, which is the same word as our English "Newport;" and Ostend, which simply means "Eastend." The first of these ports is very small, and most visitors enter the country at Ostend, where the harbour is only kept deep enough for ocean-going ships by constant dredging.

3. The eastern part of the country contains a few low ranges of forest-clad hills, but elsewhere the country resembles Holland. To get an idea of its surface you must climb to the top of one of the tall steeples, or belfries, which are found in all Belgian towns. Most of them are very old, and are finely decorated. They were built so





**The Frugal Meal (a Dutch Interior).**  
*(From the picture by Josef Israels in the Glasgow Art Gallery.)*

that in time of war watchmen placed at the top could see far over the land.

4. About eight miles inland is Bruges, which is connected by two canals with the sea, and is now much visited for its picture-galleries and its old-world quaintness. Its belfry is very lofty, and its clock has the finest chimes in all Europe. Let us ascend and enjoy the view. Looking westwards we see the North Sea; southwards and eastwards and northwards the country is as flat as the sea, and only just above its level.

5. As you glance across the plain your eye lights upon other towers similar to that upon which you are standing. About twenty-five miles to the south-east you make out the belfry of Ghent, and if the weather is clear, you may even see Ypres, an old cloth-working town, far to the south. Bruges, Ghent, Ypres, and the other towns which you see were rich and flourishing for centuries, and they prove very clearly that the Belgian plain has long been famous for manufactures and trade.

6. We now proceed to Ghent, which is the "Manchester of Belgium," and contains many cotton mills. We climb its belfry, which is higher than St. Paul's Cathedral in London, and looking around we notice that the towns within view are even more numerous than those which we saw at Bruges. Below us are two large rivers, the Scheldt and the Lys, which unite and wander away eastwards in a broad, full stream.

7. If we look at the map we see many other broad and deep rivers, all tributaries or sub-tributaries of the Scheldt. Belgium is very well supplied with rivers, and all of them

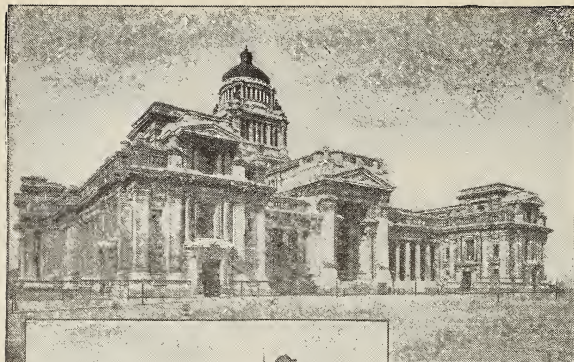
are connected by means of canals. Thus there is cheap and easy communication between all parts of the country. This is the first reason why Belgium is so busy and prosperous.

8. The great cities, however, would never have grown up if they had only Belgium to depend upon. As in the case of Holland, Belgium is a sea gate of the busy and populous countries lying to the east and south. Across Belgium is the shortest road to the sea from the great industrial districts on the Rhine, and Belgium is also the natural outlet for the cottons and woollens and other products of North France. A vast stream of foreign trade flows through the country, and this is the second reason why Belgium is busy and prosperous.

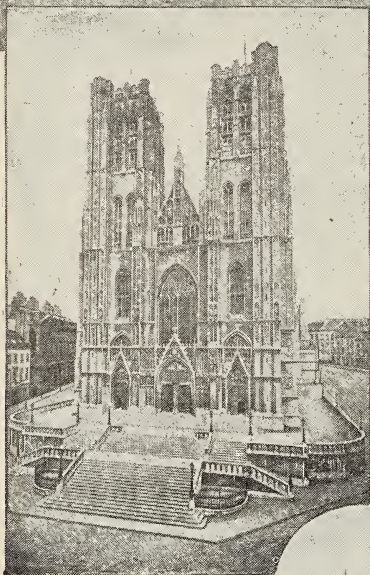
9. Nearly all this trade finds its way through Antwerp, which stands on the Scheldt, sixty miles from the sea, and is nearly opposite to London, the greatest port and the richest market in the world. Antwerp is known as the "Liverpool of the Continent," and is the most strongly fortified town in Belgium. Its docks and quays stretch along the river front for miles, and the river itself is always full of shipping. Antwerp is also famous for its grand churches and the beautiful pictures which they contain. It was the home of Rubens, one of the greatest artists who ever lived. His tomb may still be seen in one of the churches, and the cathedral contains some of his finest pictures.

10. As we travel eastwards to Brussels, the capital, the perfectly flat land begins to get tumbled and uneven. There are no real hills yet, but you feel that you are rising

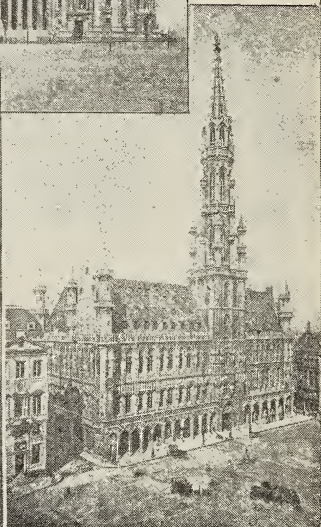




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VIEWS IN BRUSSELS.

1. Palais de Justice. 2. Cathedral of St. Gudule. 3. Hôtel de Ville. 4. Royal Palace.



into higher land. Brussels stands on the river Senne, and is one of the finest cities in all Europe. It has noble buildings, museums, picture galleries, and a great central street which runs from north to south. The town hall, which was built in the fifteenth century, has a lofty spire topped by a statue which serves as a weather-vane. In the square in front is a paved market-place surrounded by old houses. Here you may see Flemish women in their white caps and large gold earrings, and notice the dogs which draw their little carts to and fro. Brussels is one of the gayest cities in Europe, and is sometimes called "Little Paris."

11. If we walk eastwards from Brussels we shall ascend higher and higher, until we reach a point from which we can look down a deep valley through which there flows a broad, clear river. This is the Meuse, and you notice at once that it is quite unlike the rivers of the east of Belgium. The Meuse runs everywhere between steep hills, and where it enters Belgium from France it flows through a narrow gorge. From this gorge we can row for a long day down the river between deep, silent forests covering the hills, which rise hundreds of feet on both sides of us.

12. As we proceed, the hills sink in height, the stream becomes broader, and the towns upon its banks become larger and more frequent. We pass Dinant, and later on the larger town of Namur, where the river is joined by the Sambre. The valley of the Sambre, and the Meuse valley beyond the confluence, are densely populated, because here we find one of the richest coalfields of the Continent.

13. Still farther down, near the German frontier, is the great industrial town of Liège, the "Belgian Birmingham." The whole neighbourhood is full of smoking chimneys and blast furnaces. Liège has one of the largest cannon factories in the world, and manufactures many firearms. The coalfield of the Sambre-Meuse valley is the third reason why Belgium is busy and prosperous.

14. Beyond the Meuse we find the third and final division of Belgium. It is quite unlike the rest of the country. The hills are lofty, and are covered with woods which in the south are known as the Forest of the Ardennes. Where there are no forests the country consists of vast heaths and moors which the Belgians call the *Fagne*. This part of the country is almost deserted.

15. Belgium has been called the "Cockpit of Europe," because so many pitched battles have been fought on its plains. The greatest battle of all was fought at Waterloo, nine miles south of Brussels. The battlefield is now a beautiful stretch of orchards and meadows, with a number of monuments dotted over them to remind us of the great fight. If you look at the map, you will see numbers of other places marked with crossed swords. Each of these places marks a famous battlefield.

16. The battlefields were not chosen at random; there was always a good reason why a particular battle should have been fought at a particular place. Look, for example, at all those famous battlefields in the rolling land between Brussels and the Meuse. Why were they fought in this district? The answer is clear. An army from North Germany and an army marching north from France

would meet in this part of the country. Each army could find a shorter way across the Ardennes and the high land, but an army with its food and baggage trains always avoids hill country if it can. The reason why the British have fought battles in this district is also clear. They had to meet their allies as rapidly as possible after crossing the sea, and the most convenient meeting-place was this rolling country between Brussels and the Meuse.

17. Before I close this chapter, a word or two must be said about the Belgian people. Two languages, French and Flemish, are mainly spoken; three-eighths of the people speak only French, and three-sevenths of them only Flemish, while the remainder speak either French, German, or Flemish. The religion is Roman Catholic. Education is free but not compulsory. The country is governed by a king and a parliament somewhat similar to our own.

18. The story of Belgium may be told in a few words. When Holland won its freedom, Belgium remained subject to Philip of Spain, and afterwards belonged to Austria. Napoleon conquered both Holland and Belgium, and joined them to France. When he fell, his conquerors united Holland and Belgium into a single kingdom. Neither Dutch nor Belgians liked this union, and in 1830 they broke asunder and became separate kingdoms.

19. The Belgians are a hard-working, intelligent people, and they have always held a high place in art and science. In recent years they have become the possessors of the great Congo territory of Africa, and have done much to open up the heart of the "Dark Continent."

## Scandinavia.

By S. A. Gillon.

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### 22. DENMARK AND THE DANES.

1. In the opening lessons of this book we glanced at the great Scandinavian peninsula, which, as you know, is almost entirely cut off from the rest of Europe by the Baltic Sea. At the entrance to this sea you notice a long narrow peninsula, which, unlike most of the peninsulas of the world, runs northwards. It almost bridges the gulf between the Scandinavian peninsula and the mainland, and in earlier days actually did so. This peninsula contains the little country of Denmark. Because it is peopled by the same race as the far greater peninsula to the north, we may call Norway, Sweden, and Denmark by the general name of Scandinavia.

2. These countries, in olden days, were inhabited by a race of fierce heathen fighters and sailors known as Northmen. They were a tall, fair-haired, blue-eyed people, and much of their blood runs in the veins of the British nation to-day. Though the Norwegians, the Swedes, and the Danes are now separate peoples living in separate states, they have always had much in common. For example, they are nearly all Protestants, and they speak a language which is much the same, though parts of the grammar and many of the words are different. A Norwegian can be understood in Sweden, and a Swede in Denmark.

3. We British ought to be specially interested in these countries, for their inhabitants are our kinsfolk, and they



## SCANDINAVIA & DENMARK



Present Boundaries shown in Red

Bartholomew, Edin'



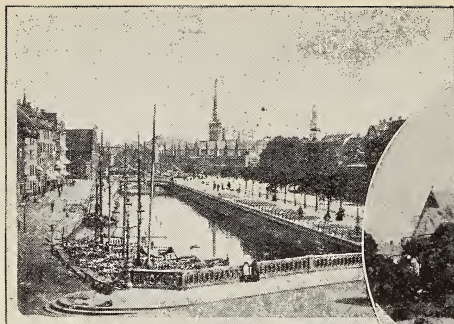
have nearly always been friendly with us. The present queen of Norway is an English princess, and Queen Alexandra is a sister of the late King of Denmark. Ships are constantly coming and going between our northern ports and those of Scandinavia. Many of the pit-props in our mines, much of the granite of our dock walls, and large quantities of the wood-pulp from which the paper of our books and newspapers is made, come from Scandinavia.

4. Though Norway, Sweden, and Denmark have so much in common, yet their physical character is very different. Denmark is almost entirely flat; the highest mountain is not so high as the Chiltern Hills. There are no big rivers, pine forests, or lakes. It is a tame and homely country, and everything is on a small scale.

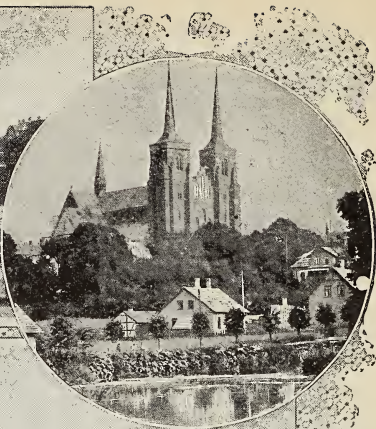
5. Denmark is only about half the size of Scotland, and is by far the smallest of the Scandinavian states. Once upon a time it was much larger, but Germany tore from it the southern part, and now it consists only of the Peninsula of Jutland, and a cluster of islands to the east. The largest of these islands is Zealand. The climate is much like our own, except that the weather is a little warmer in summer and colder in winter. As the islands are surrounded by water they have a milder climate. Nevertheless, in the year 1658, when the Little Belt was frozen over, Charles the Tenth of Sweden marched an army across the ice and surprised the Danes on the island of Fünen.

6. You will not visit Denmark in order to enjoy fine scenery. Most of it is a dead level, and not at all unlike parts of the English Fens. Except in the centre of Jutland, we see comfortable farms and cottages amidst well-tilled fields,

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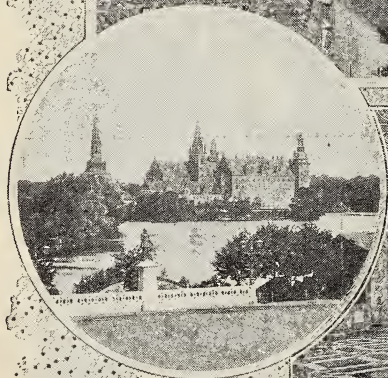
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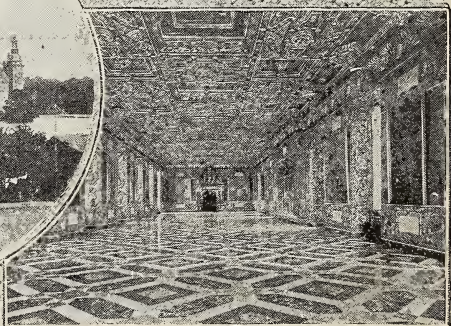
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#### VIEWS IN DENMARK.

1. Copenhagen : Bourse and Canal. 2. Roskilde Cathedral, in which Danish royalties are buried. 3. Copenhagen from Amalienborg. 4. Frederiksborg, the home of Queen Alexandra, 5. The Knights' Hall, Frederiksborg.



rich meadows, and beech woods. In the middle of Jutland there are great deserted moors which grow nothing but heather.

7. There are few ports on the coast of Jutland, because the waters are shallow and are impeded by sandbanks and shoals. The only port worth mention on the west side is Esbjerg. It stands near the German border, and ships much dairy produce to Harwich for the London markets. On the east side, however, there are several busy ports. From Frederikshavn, which stands about twenty miles south of Cape Skagen, or 'The Skaw, boats sail regularly to Gothenburg in Sweden.

8. South of this port we see the great "broad" known as the Lim Fjord, which stretches right across the country and turns the northern part of Jutland into an island. On this fjord, about twenty miles from the sea, stands Aalborg, from which ships are constantly sailing to Copenhagen, a hundred and thirty miles to the south-east. Randers, with its glove factories, and the old city of Aarhus, farther south, are the only other towns of the mainland which call for remark.

9. Denmark, as you know, commands the entrance to the Baltic Sea. Her two large islands of Fünen and Zealand almost block up the entrance, leaving only three passages for ships. The Little Belt, between Fünen and the peninsula is shallow and winding; but the Great Belt, between Fünen and Zealand, is wider and deeper. The third passage is a far busier highway. It is known as the Sound, and lies between Zealand and the Swedish coast.

10. As you sail from the Cattegat through the narrowest part of the Sound you see the old castle of Elsinore, in which Shakespeare places some of the scenes in his "Hamlet." On the other side, only two and a half miles away, is the coast of Sweden. At Elsinore, up to the year 1857, every foreign ship had to salute the Danish flag and pay toll. In that year the chief Powers of Europe paid Denmark four million pounds to do away with the toll. Near to Elsinore is the royal palace of Frederiksborg.

11. Copenhagen, the capital, stands on the east side of Zealand, and partly on the island of Amager, about twenty-five miles south of Elsinore. It is a large shipping port, and has many important manufactures. The town itself is busy and cheerful, and its old-fashioned quays and palaces are attractive. The Round Tower, and a statue in one of the public gardens, remind us of the famous fairy-tale writer, Hans Andersen, who was born at Odense, the chief town of fertile Fünen. Copenhagen has a university and a fine museum, with many beautiful statues.

12. Denmark is a land with few natural advantages. It has no coal or minerals, and its soil is not fertile. Nevertheless, the people have been so active and industrious that they have made Danish farming pay well. The farmers have brought science to bear on the production of butter and eggs, and they have learnt to combine. Their factories are wonderfully well managed, and their methods are copied all over the world. Every year Denmark sends to England butter, bacon, and eggs to the value of over thirteen and a half millions sterling.

13. To Denmark belongs the large island of Iceland,

which lies just outside the Arctic circle. Most of it is a wild, desolate land of old volcanic hills and vast snow-fields. A great part of the country is covered with lava which has been thrown out in a molten state by the volcanoes. The largest of the present volcanoes is Hekla, which rivals Vesuvius.

14. Throughout the country are many strange hot-water volcanoes, known as geysers. The water of these geysers is clear and pure, and is sometimes shot up into the air to a height of over one hundred feet. Earthquakes are common, and have done much damage. Only in the south, where the Atlantic drift brings warmth to the land, do we find fields capable of yielding crops for the support of the scanty population. The capital is Reykjavik, but it is scarcely larger than a village.

5. The men are famous fishermen and whalers, and the women knit stockings in great numbers. The people love learning, and every child is well taught. They still read and enjoy the old poems or sagas which their Norse forefathers sang in praise of their gods and heroes.

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## 23. A VISIT TO NORWAY.

1. Crossing the Sound from Copenhagen to Malmö by the ferry steamer, we find ourselves in the Scandinavian peninsula, which is greater in extent than the two southern peninsulas of Iberia and Italy taken together. While, however, these peninsulas support more than fifty-two million people, the Scandinavian peninsula has a population of only some eight millions. Why have Norway and Sweden

less than one-sixth of the population of Spain, Portugal, and Italy?

2. First, you know that in these northern lands the climate is severe, and the soil less fruitful than in the sunny south. A glance at the map shows you that most of Norway is occupied by lofty mountains. One snow-field in these mountains is the largest in all Europe. Only a thirtieth part of the country is suitable for tillage and pasture. One-fifth of its surface is covered with woods, and all the rest consists of bare rock, spreading lake, and gleaming glacier.

3. Such a country, however, might be populous and prosperous if it were rich in coal and minerals. Norway, unfortunately, has little coal, therefore it cannot at present be a great manufacturing country. Some day its waterfalls and rushing streams will give motion to the turbines that will generate electricity. Then Norway will have plenty of cheap power, and may become a great industrial country.

4. Sweden is more favoured than Norway. Over one-eighth of the country is under crops and tillage, and nearly half of it consists of forest. While Norway has two-thirds of its surface barren and uncultivated, Sweden has only one-third in a similar condition. Further, Sweden has a good supply of coal and abounds in iron. For these reasons it has five and a half millions of people, while Norway has only two and a half millions.

5. The broad southern part of Norway is by far the most valuable part of the country. Here the great events of Norway's history took place, and here the greater part of the population lives. It is better wooded and has better



soil than the north, though it is not any warmer. The Atlantic drift keeps the western seas free of ice as far north as North Cape. Even to the east of North Cape, in the Arctic Ocean, the long Varanger Fjord is ice-free all winter.

6. Northern Norway is a poor and desolate country; but the coast, with its breakwater of islands, or "skerry



THE MIDNIGHT SUN IN NORWAY.

wall," is very beautiful. Everywhere you see lofty precipices falling sheer to the water's edge, and wonderful steep-walled bays or fjords running far into the land. Into these fjords fall thousands of foaming waterfalls, fed by the snowfields and glaciers on the surrounding mountains.

7. The chief industry is fishing, for there are salmon in the rivers, and cod, herring, and mackerel off the coast. Round the Lofoden Islands the fisheries are especially rich. A good deal of whale fishing is also carried on from Hammerfest, the most northerly town in Europe. The

storms, the short days, and the many currents and whirlpools off the coast make the winter fishing very dangerous. In the far north we find the Laplanders, who wander about with their herds of reindeer. Tourists sail as far as North Cape in the summer in order to see the Midnight Sun. At North Cape the sun never sets from May 12th to July 29th.

8. Southern Norway may be divided into East-land and West-land. In East-land the mountains are more rounded, the valleys are wider, the rivers longer, and the forests more extensive than in West-land. In West-land the mountains are high and steep, the valleys are dark and narrow, and deep, gloomy fjords run far into the land. Between Trondhjem and Christiania lies the lofty highland region of the Dovre Fjeld.

9. We will first visit East-land, and we naturally make our way to Christiania, the capital of Norway, which stands at the head of Christiania Fjord. It is a picturesque, pleasant city, with large shipbuilding yards, many factories, and pleasant suburbs. In the outskirts of the city are a number of hills, and on one of them is a high wooden tower. We climb to its top and obtain a magnificent view. All around us are rolling tree-clad hills with fields at intervals. To the west and north-west we see the line of high, blue mountains which forms the great backbone of the peninsula. The country which we see from the top of the tower is the richest and best in Norway. If we travel north from Christiania we come to Norway's largest lake, Lake Mjösen, and see its banks dotted with prosperous farms.

10. To visit West-land we must travel by steamer to a little town on the western side of the fjord. Thence we



VIEWS IN NORWAY.

1. Bergen.      2. Trondhjem Cathedral.      3. Christiania.      4. The "Seven Sisters" Waterfall, Geiranger Fjord.

proceed by canal, lake, and road right across to Odde on the Hardanger Fjord. This journey will take us through the mountain region of Southern Norway. As we go westward the valleys become narrower and narrower. After we leave the town of Dalen the road steadily rises for sixty miles, the air becomes keener, and the river which we have followed becomes a mere torrent.

11. At the summit of the water-shed we find a tunnel through a snowdrift. To the south of us is a wild plateau on which the reindeer roam. This plateau is deep in snow for eight months of the year, and can only be crossed on the wooden runners called *ski*. To the north stretches a still wilder solitude, and long before we reach Odde we see the high snows on the great Hardanger Fjeld.

12. There are two railway routes from the capital across the mountains to the west coast, but to see the fjords we must embark on a coasting steamer. The most famous fjords are the Hardanger, the Sogne, and the Nord. The Sogne Fjord is the longest, and runs right into the heart of the vast snow-field which has already been mentioned. Here we find the highest waterfall in Norway. Still farther north is the lovely valley known as the Romsdal. The floor of this valley is green and cultivated; but on all sides rise huge black mountains, some of which are called "witches' fingers." Down the valley flows the river Rauma, one of the finest salmon rivers in the world.

13. Let us visit one of the Norwegian farms in this district. The wooden farmhouse generally stands in the valley, but the farm itself often stretches high up the hills. On these upland pastures we find rough huts, called *saeters*, and every summer the live stock and family are moved up to them. It is no uncommon sight to see cows grazing almost on the edge of a glacier. In September the cattle are driven down to the valley again. Almost every Norwegian farmer owns his farm.

14. If we enter a farmhouse at meal times we shall



notice that much fish is eaten, and that very little fresh meat finds its way to the table. The peasants chiefly live on porridge, dried and smoked fish, and potatoes. The farmer is a broad-shouldered, broad-faced, sturdy man, and he wears rough home-spun clothes, shoes without nails, and a slouch felt hat.

15. We have already visited Christiania, and on our journey along the coast we shall pass other towns, such as Bergen, which has been a great trading port for centuries, and exports vast quantities of herrings, cod liver oil, and other fish products. Near the town is a famous old wooden church something like a Burmese pagoda. Trondhjem, which has already been mentioned, is a large market town and shipbuilding place. Its fine cathedral, in which the Norwegian kings are crowned, dates from the days when Trondhjem was the capital of the country.

16. The Norwegians are fine sailors, as were their sires of old, and though they are a small nation they have a large merchant navy. They are a very capable, contented, and independent people, with but few rich men amongst them, and no class divisions such as we find in our own country.

17. As early as the ninth century Norway and Sweden were separate countries ruled by their own kings; but at the end of the fourteenth century, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden formed a union under the leadership of Denmark. Sweden broke away from this union, but Norway remained under Danish rule. Sweden then became the most powerful country in Northern Europe, and united some of the provinces of Norway and Denmark with itself. Her power, however, waned, and then came the days of Napo-



**A Norwegian Fjord.**  
(From the picture by T. von Eckenbrecker. By permission of the Berlin Photographic Company.)

leon, who set one of his officers on her throne. A union was formed with Norway, and one king ruled over the two nations, though they still remained independent, and each had its own parliament. In 1905, however, Norway and Sweden agreed peacefully to separate, and once more they became entirely independent, under kings of their own.

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## 24. THE KINGDOM OF SWEDEN.

1. Eastwards of the great ridge of the Norwegian mountains the country of Sweden descends in terraces to the shores of the Baltic Sea and the Gulf of Bothnia. You already know that Sweden is less rugged than its sister country; it is more fertile; its rivers are much longer, and many of them broaden out into lakes as they flow to the Baltic Sea.

2. Sweden is divided into three parts—Norrland, Svealand, and Gothland. Norrland, as its name implies, is farthest north. It was the last part of the country to be settled by Swedes and Norsemen. The original people were Laplanders and Finns, and several thousands of them still inhabit the country.

3. If we travel westward through Norrland from the shores of the Gulf of Bothnia, we find first of all a belt of wooded land with shallow soil. Next comes an agricultural belt in the river valleys, where the soil is richer. Beyond this we reach a tract of forest, and still farther north wide marshy moors pitted with large lakes. Finally, we reach the high mountains which form the Norwegian boundary.

4. Though Norrland is the largest division of Sweden,

and contains more than half its area, it has only one-sixth of the population. It boasts, however, many iron mines; but, as the Gulf of Bothnia is ice-bound in winter, the ore is sent overland to a Norwegian port. The forests are its chief source of wealth, and at every port on the Gulf of Bothnia you may see ships being loaded with logs and planks. Next to farming, the forests afford the chief source of livelihood to the inhabitants. In a single year Sweden has exported timber valued at fourteen million pounds sterling.

5. Svealand is the central province of Sweden, and contains the old kingdom of Dalecarlia, so famous in the history of Sweden. It was the Dalecarlians who, under Gustavus Vasa, played a large part in freeing their country from the yoke of Denmark. Svealand is rich in forests and mines, and has more farming than Norrland. It is a flat country, seamed with rivers and large lakes. Though it has a special beauty of its own, the ordinary traveller thinks its scenery tame after Norway. Upsala, a very ancient place with a famous university, and Eskilstuna, the "Sheffield of Sweden," may be mentioned in passing.

6. The ancient capital of Svealand, and of all Sweden, is the city of Stockholm. If we sail up to it from the sea, we pass through a maze of rocks and wooded islands, amidst scenes of surpassing beauty. Occasionally we pass villages of wooden houses, gaily painted in red, green, and blue, and on the shores we see many skiffs with upturned bows. Here and there on the islands are the pretty summer houses of wealthy merchants. At length we sail through a narrow opening guarded by the big guns of a powerful



fort, and an hour or two later reach Stockholm, one of the most beautiful capitals in all Europe.

7. The city covers two large islands and a number of peninsulas, and well deserves to be called "The Venice of the North." It is the queen of the Baltic, as Venice is the queen of the Adriatic. Stockholm contains a royal palace with a fine collection of ancient costumes, the stately Parliament House, an Opera House, a magnificent national museum, and many fine churches, statues, and public gardens.



STOCKHOLM—THE CAPITAL OF SWEDEN.

8. On a little island there is an open-air museum, known as Skansen, which gives a faithful picture of Sweden as it was in ancient times. There are models of old farms, towers, and houses, and a zoological garden containing all the birds and animals of the country. Usually there is an encampment of Laplanders. At certain times of the year the national dances are danced and the national songs are sung.

9. Stockholm is a delightful place in summer and autumn, and many of the inhabitants spend much of their time in the

cafés and public gardens. In this respect Stockholm is more like a southern than a northern city. But it is by no means given over to pleasure. It has a large trade, and from it steamers sail regularly to Russia, North Germany, Norway, and the British Isles. In winter the climate is severe, and the ice-breaker has to be used to keep the harbour open.

10. From Stockholm we sail by canal to Gothenburg, the capital of the southern province of Gothland. On the way we pass Norrköping, the busiest manufacturing place in all Sweden. It manufactures cloth, spins and weaves cotton, makes sugar, paper, and tobacco, and builds ships. Later on we sail through Lake Wetter, and pass the south end of Lake Wener, which is a hundred miles long and some fifty miles wide. Steamers crossing it are for some time out of sight of land. At length we reach the Göta River. All the country through which we have passed is flat and low-lying, but is covered with woods of pine, varied by birch, lime, and mountain ash.

11. Gothenburg, at the mouth of the river Göta, is the chief seaport of Sweden, for it is the nearest point to the North Sea. It looks towards Denmark across the Cattegat, and has a fine situation. Much fishing is carried on in the neighbourhood.

12. The Swedes are a highly-educated people, and they are excellent craftsmen. Their telephones, dairy implements, and cutlery are known all over the world. Nowhere is the telephone so much used as in Sweden. It almost takes the place of the telegraph, and all the bedrooms in the chief hotels are supplied with instruments. The government is much like that of Britain, and the royal family is descended from Marshal Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals.

## Russia in Europe.

By Hon. Maurice Baring, author of "With the Russians in Manchuria," "Landmarks in Russian Literature," etc.

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### 25. A GENERAL VIEW.

1. You already know that Russia in Europe is the broad eastern extension of the great central European plain. The first and most striking fact which we must notice about Russia is the vastness of the land. European Russia occupies more than half of Europe. It is nearly ten times as big as France, and more than thirty times as big as England and Wales. The whole Russian Empire covers one-sixth of the land surface of the globe, and has a population of over one hundred and sixty millions. It is equal in extent to more than three-fourths of the British Empire. In Europe alone the subjects of the Tsar number one hundred and thirty-five millions.

2. The second striking fact about Russia is that there is a general sameness in all parts of it. The vast plain is uniform—that is to say, it has no sharp and widely different features. It has, for example, no great mountain ranges, and but few tablelands. The highest tablelands are in the extreme north-east and in the extreme south-east, but nowhere do they rise more than fifteen hundred feet above sea-level. The Valdai Hills, the highest hills in Northern Russia, do not exceed eleven hundred feet in height.

3. Owing to the great sameness of level, the landscape of Russia is monotonous. If you travel in Russia, and sleep a night in the train, you will easily think when you look

out of the window in the morning that you are just where you were the night before. The absence of mountain chains crossing the country from west to east, or north to south, has an important effect on the climates. There is nothing to act as a wind-screen, and thus places very far apart often have the same climate. You already know that, owing to the small amount of coast, the heat of summer and the cold of winter are but little modified by the sea. The only part of Russia in which the climate is really affected by closeness to the sea is the south-east coast of the Crimea, which is milder than the Riviera.

4. In summer Russia is hotter than those parts of Western Europe which are equally distant from the equator. The winter is very long and severe, and lasts from November to the end of April. A deep mantle of snow covers Russia in winter, but when there is no wind the cold is but little felt. All farm work stops during winter.

5. The vegetation of Russia has the same lack of sharp variety as the climate. It is divided into broad belts which gradually merge, the one into the other. In the extreme north there is the *tundra*—that is, a belt of marsh and peat where the thermometer rises above freezing-point for only a few months in the year, and icy winds are always blowing. Here we find no trees, no agriculture, and no cattle. The animal which chiefly provides food for the scanty population is the reindeer. On the northern confines of Russia fur-bearing animals are hunted.

6. South of this belt lies a vast wooded region with a clay soil. Here and there the woods are broken by lakes, marshes, and in some places fields. As this belt reaches the middle



of Russia the woods become thinner. In the northern part most of the trees are firs, though the aspen and the birch grow in some places. In the southern part we find the lime, the birch, the elm, the maple, the ash, and the elder. The beech tree only grows in Poland, on the hills of the Crimea, and in some other places in the south. In very ancient times the wooded zone extended without a break over the whole of Northern Russia. It has gradually been cleared by the hand of man. Agriculture is possible but difficult in this region, and men must work hard to reap a scanty harvest.

7. The woodland zone merges into a belt of black soil, which is entirely cultivated. Here and there in this belt we see large islands of trees. South of the Black Belt the Steppes, or plains, begin, and only end on the shores of the Black Sea. The soil of the Steppes consists of black earth also, but it grows thinner and thinner as we travel southwards, until it ends in sand. There are trees on the Steppes too, but they are only found in small groups.

8. This belt of black earth is one of the most important and valuable features of Russia. It consists of loam mixed with clay and old rotted vegetation. In the rainy season, it is a thick black paste; in the summer, it is a fine dry sand. So rich is it that it scarcely needs manure. This belt of black earth is one of the largest wheat-producing areas in the world.

9. The Steppes are fertile towards the north, but in the south they are dry deserts. In the spring they are covered with grass and flowers, but by the month of July all is parched and bare. In winter they are deep in snow. The Steppes are the home of the Cossacks, who

in early times were robbers, living on loot and fighting fiercely against the Tartars, who tried to invade their lands. Later on, the Cossacks became Christians, joined the Russians, and fought against the Poles. They were enrolled, much as our Highlanders were, in regiments which exist to-day.

10. The Cossacks still form a race apart. Cossacks, like poets, are born not made. No doubt you know that they are splendid horsemen. They are born to the saddle, and they love and esteem horses so much that they will lynch any man who steals one. Despite the bad character which writers of books have given them, they are a simple, good-natured race of men.

11. We have already sailed down the Volga and noticed its importance. A glance at the map shows you many other rivers, all of which are valuable highways of trade. Peter the Great united the chief rivers by means of a system of canals, so that you can now travel by boat from St. Petersburg, the capital, to the Caspian Sea.

12. From what you have already read, you will understand that Russia is an easy country to invade, and an easy country to move about in. The history of European Russia is the story of how a race, known as the Slavs, entered Europe from the East and gradually conquered and settled in the land. Very little is known about their early history. We do know, however, that in the time of the Romans they dwelt near the Danube, and that they settled first of all on the Dnieper, in the south of Russia, where they built cities; amongst others, Kiev.

13. About the time that the Danes invaded the British



**The Sledge.**

*(From the picture by Józef Chelmoński.)*

Isles they invaded Russia also. They consisted of bands of Varangians, or armed rovers, who travelled through Russia on their way to Constantinople. The leader of one of these bands was Rurik, a Scandinavian chief of great strength and ability. The people of the north invited him to govern them, and he became King of Novgorod. In course of time his son, Igor, became Grand Duke of Kiev. The Varangians settled in Kiev to guard the caravan roads, and they intermarried with the natives, who called their land "Rus" and themselves Russians. No one knows what "Rus" originally meant.

14. The Slavs and Varangians in the south gradually grew to be a strong people, and made themselves masters of the surrounding cities and country. They were all under the rule of the Grand Duke of Kiev. Quarrels broke out between the members of the ruling family, and at last one of the dukes led his people north and began the work of colonizing Central Russia.

15. By the year 1200 Russia was as civilized as any other European country. In Kiev at this time there were many splendid churches and other buildings, as well as much book-learning. But in 1224 Jenghiz Khan, a chief of a nomad Mongol tribe in China, invaded Europe, and sacked Kiev and many other towns. This was known as the Tartar invasion, and it put back progress in Russia for two hundred years. The Russians were forced to yield to the Tartars, and to pay them tribute. Unlike the Varangians, the Tartars did not intermix with the Russians. They never adopted Russian habits and customs or the Christian religion, and only settled in the one town of Kazan, where they still remain.



# RUSSIA



Present Boundaries shown in Red



16. Gradually all the little Russian principalities and dukedoms into which the country was divided became united into the kingdom of Moscow. The Grand Duke of Moscow at length threw off the Tartar yoke, and called himself Tsar, or Cæsar. This title was continued until Peter the Great called himself Emperor of all the Russias. The present emperor is also King of Poland and Tsar of Moscow. The Russians, however, never speak of the emperor as the Tsar except in poetry; they call him "Gosudar," or the sovereign.

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## 26. THE PEOPLES OF RUSSIA.

1. The kingdom of Moscow was an offshoot of the kingdom of Kiev. It was peopled by the Slavs, who by this time had intermingled with a race known as the Finns. These people had invaded Europe in very early times, and had settled in the forests of the north. This mixture of Slavs and Finns became the people known as the Great Russians.

2. From the moment that Moscow became a kingdom the Great Russians began to conquer and colonize the land. For two centuries they fought the Poles, but the fortune of war often went against them. At one time the Poles captured Moscow, and Russia nearly became a large Poland. In the end, however, the Russians became supreme. They rallied round their leader and fought as a united band, while the Poles were always quarrelling amongst themselves.

3. The Great Russians thus became the strongest and toughest race in Russia, and succeeded in subduing all





**Blessing the Waters.**

*From the picture by Teodor Axentowicz.*

(When the thaw begins after the long winter it is customary in Russia for a priest to bless the waters. This picture shows a group of peasants at the conclusion of the ceremony.)



the country. They gradually enlarged their borders, until Russia stretched to the Crimea and Turkestan on the south and south-east, to Manchuria in the east, and to Germany in the west. The Great Russians are now the largest in number and importance of all the Russian peoples, and they occupy the bulk of the country.

4. The descendants of the races and tribes which the Great Russians subdued still exist, and they differ as widely from their conquerors as a northern Frenchman from a southern Frenchman. One of these conquered peoples consists of the White Russians, who represent some of the earliest Slav colonists, and live near the sources of the Niemen, the Dvina, and the Dnieper in the south-west of Russia. Generally, however, the Russians of the south are called Little Russians. They speak a dialect of their own, love dance and song, and are less fond of work than the northern Russians.

5. Amongst other races in Russia are the Poles, who are a Slav people with quite a separate language. You already know that for a long time they were the rivals of the Great Russians. Then we have the Lithuanians and the Finns in the west and north-west, the Tartars and Bashkirs in the east, and the Kalmucks, a Mongol people who live east of the Volga. These races and those of the Caucasus represent the peoples of the provinces conquered by the Great Russians. You will notice that they dwell on the fringes of European Russia. Some five million Jews live in Russia, chiefly in the south-west and in Poland.

6. Most of the towns consist largely of wooden houses. In the villages nearly all the houses are of wood, with

thatched roofs. The richer peasants, however, build their houses of brick and roof them with iron. Owing to the frequency of fires, the houses must by law be built at a certain distance apart. Fires constantly break out, and when there is a strong wind blowing the flames spread rapidly from house to house, and sometimes a whole street is burnt down in the course of a few hours. It is said that almost every village in Russia is entirely destroyed by fire once in every seven years.

7. The mean, broken-down appearance of the Russian villages will probably lead us to imagine that the people are poorer and more miserable than they actually are. If a peasant grows rich, he will often prefer to go on living in his old house rather than build himself a new and a better one. If we visit a Russian village, we shall notice that the streets are broad, and that each house has a kind of yard containing thatched buildings, divided up into quarters for the horse, the cows, and the pigs. Beyond this yard there is a small garden with trees and cabbages.

8. The village boys wear red shirts, and go barefooted in the summer; while the cattle and horses, the ducks, geese, and pigs wander about the common-land. If the village is in Central Russia, you will be sure to find one or more windmills, and a church built of wood, with cupolas and minarets painted light blue or gilded. The form of these churches shows the Eastern origin of the people. We see it, too, in the bright colours worn by the peasants on Sundays and holidays.

9. In Northern Russia the peasant is generally a tall, well-built man, with fair hair and blue eyes. In the south,

as a rule, he is darker. The men wear loose shirts belted round the waist, cloth putties on their legs, and on their feet, in summer, shoes made of plaited straw. They also wear peaked caps, and loose knickerbockers of thin cloth. On Sundays and feast days they dress in shirts of the brightest colours—red, blue, yellow, and salmon-pink. In winter they wear large top-boots, made of gray felt, and brown leather greatcoats lined with sheepskin. The women do not wear hats, but handkerchiefs tied over their heads.

10. The peasant thinks of himself as a member of a family, and addresses his fellows as father, brother, son, or child. He lives in a one-storied house, built of logs and thatched with straw. Inside the house there is a large high stove on which all the family sleep. On the table you will always see the samovar, a large brass urn for boiling water. Meat is seldom eaten, the usual fare being porridge made of buckwheat or millet, cabbage soup, and black bread. A great deal of tea is drunk, and on feast days and at weddings much vodka, a spirit made out of potatoes, is consumed.

11. The Russian peasant has to make hay while the sun shines, so he works hard all summer and rests all winter. Perhaps this is the reason why he can, if he chooses, do a large amount of hard labour in a short space of time. He works with amazing vigour by fits and starts, but he is rarely capable of going on continuously day after day.

12. Time has no value in his eyes. He will usually trust to Providence, to chance, or to the government, rather than to his own efforts. At times—when, for example,





# VIEWS IN ST. PETERSBURG.

1. Nicholas Bridge. 2. Place Snamjenskii. 3. St. Isaac's Cathedral. 4. The Winter Palace. 5. Palace of the Admiralty. 6. Palace of the Senate. 7. Kazan Cathedral. 8. The Hermitage Gallery. 9. Statue of Peter the Great. 10. Winter Palace, Military Headquarters, and Gate of the Admiralty. (Photos 2, 5, and 6 by the Photochrom Company.)



he is putting out a village fire, or working in the fields, or intent on finishing a job—he will work like an inspired giant. At other times he is careless, lazy, and happy-go-lucky. It is clear, however, that if the Russians were lazy, and nothing else, the Russian Empire could never have existed.

13. By the sides of the roads you will frequently see posts on which an ikon—that is, a holy image—is fixed. As the peasants pass these emblems, or a church, they take off their caps and make the sign of the cross. The churches are very numerous, and they are never pulled down, even when they fall into ruins. The Russian peasant is very devout, and frequently before travelling by rail he will buy a candle at the station and place it in a scone before an ikon, so as to ensure his safety during the journey. There is generally an ikon in every room of every home in Russia. The bulk of the people belong to the Greek Orthodox Church, which separated from the Church of Rome in 1054.

14. The Russian peasant is musical, and is fond of dance and song. The folk-songs in Russia are numerous and sometimes beautiful, and the singing in the large Russian churches is perhaps the finest in the world. As a rule, you will find the peasants fond of company, independent in their views, shrewd, full of common sense, and much attached to the old ways. Centuries of slavery have not made them slaves. They are very stubborn, and nothing can move them when they have made up their minds to resist. Their chief quality is common sense, and despite their sluggishness they are quick at understanding whatever they wish to understand.

## 27. THE CITIES OF RUSSIA.

1. The towns of Russia are mostly enlarged villages. Some of the old historical towns, such as Nijni Novgorod and Kazan, have a castle in the centre, known as a kremlin. The largest and most famous of the kremlins is that of Moscow, the ancient capital of Russia. It consists of an open space on a hill, surrounded by red brick walls with towers at intervals. Within this enclosure are palaces and churches, monasteries, and two ancient cathedrals, in one of which the czars are crowned. In the other they were formerly buried.

2. Moscow\* is one of the most wonderful cities of Europe. It is full of churches and shrines, and from the kremlin you look down upon a mass of glittering cupolas and pinnacles. The houses are painted in bright colours, and give the city a cheerful and sunny effect. One church, that of St. Basil, was built for the Czar Ivan the Terrible by an Italian architect. It has many pinnacles, and is painted in all the colours of the rainbow. One of the gates is really a church, and everybody who drives through it takes off his hat.

3. The modern capital of Russia is St. Petersburg. It was built by Peter the Great at the mouth of the short but broad river Neva, which flows to the Gulf of Finland from Lake Ladoga, a sheet of water nearly as large as Wales. The land at the mouth of the Neva was a swamp, but Peter ordered millions of piles to be driven into the marshy ground, and then built his city on these piles. He called it "the Czar's window looking out into Europe."

\* See page 33.

4. St. Petersburg has straight, broad streets, and is much more European in appearance than Moscow. The Nevsky Prospect is the finest street; it is three miles long, and more than a hundred feet wide. The Winter Palace of the Czar stands in this street, and near to it is the Admiralty building, with a lofty gilt spire crowned by a golden ship. In the Hermitage, which stands close to the Winter Palace, there is one of the finest picture galleries in the world. Not far away is St. Isaac's Cathedral, a very fine and imposing structure.

5. You will be interested to see the droskies which ply for hire in the streets. The drosky is a low carriage, with a seat for two persons and a higher perch for the driver, who is clad in a long padded coat of dark-blue or green cloth. Over the neck of the horse is a wooden arch or bow, to which most of the harness is attached. The drivers urge their horses at full speed with loud cries and many cracks of the whip. In winter, when the snow lies deep, sledges take the place of wheeled vehicles.

6. Russia, as you know, is very deficient in seaboard. She has the White Sea in the north, the Baltic Sea in the north-west, and the Black Sea to the south. The White Sea is useless for eight months of the year, and much of the Baltic coast is blocked with ice for several months. The Black Sea is nearly always ice-free; but it is cut off from the Mediterranean Sea by the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, which are in the possession of Turkey.

7. If Turkey were to close the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, Russian ships, with their cargoes of wheat, hemp, linseed, and many other things, would be unable to

leave the Black Sea. This explains why Russia covets the city of Constantinople, and why she has developed ports on the Pacific Ocean, and has joined them to the chief towns of European Russia by means of the great Siberian railway.

8. The chief Russian port on the Black Sea is Odessa. It has a fine cathedral and many other churches, a grand opera house, and numerous parks and gardens. Its chief export is the wheat of the "black earth belt," which is carried down to the coast in flat-bottomed boats after a voyage sometimes lasting several months. Another port is Batum, in the south-east corner of the Black Sea. It is connected by railway and petroleum pipe line with Baku, which stands on a peninsula of the Caspian Sea. Baku has more than three thousand petroleum wells, which produce nearly ten million tons of oil every year.

9. On the White Sea we find Archangel, the most northerly seaport of Russia. Some three or four hundred ships visit Archangel every year, about fifty of them hailing from the Tyne ports. At the quay side in the season we may see these ships being laden with oats, flax, linseed, tar, and timber.

10. By far the most important of Russian ports are to be found on the Baltic coast. On the north shore of the Gulf of Finland we find Helsingfors, the capital of Finland. It is an interesting town, built by the side of an almost landlocked harbour which is studded with rocky islands. The most attractive part of the city surrounds a pretty public garden, containing a theatre, and a statue to Runeberg, one of Finland's famous patriots and poets.





**June in the Austrian Tyrol.**

*From the picture by John McWhirter, R.A., in the Tate Gallery (Chantrey Bequest).  
[The rugged peaks in the distance beyond the village are the Dolomites.]*

11. While we are in Helsingfors we must learn something of the Grand Duchy of Finland. A glance at the map shows you that it has the Gulf of Bothnia on the west and the Gulf of Finland on the south. The country is a plain of hard ancient rocks, pitted with countless lakes, some of which are very large and are united with each other. Between the lakes are stretches of woodland and fen, with here and there a few fields carved out of the forest. The rivers and lakes abound in fish.

12. The scenery is somewhat monotonous, but the people, who are intelligent and highly educated, are very interesting. About three-quarters of them belong to the Finnish race, which has already been referred to. Most of them are Protestants. Finnish is the language of the peasants, Swedish is spoken by the middle class, and Russian is the official language. In Helsingfors you will see the names of the streets set up in all these three languages.

13. Finland has been badly treated by Russia. The Finlanders joined the Russians by an Act of Union in 1809, and they were solemnly promised that their parliament, religion, and laws should be faithfully preserved. Until quite recent years this promise has been kept. The Finnish Parliament is one of the most advanced in the world, and has women members. Now, however, the old rights have been largely taken away, and Russia seems bent on governing Finland as a Russian province.

14. The chief port of Russia is St. Petersburg. It stands, as you know, on the broad Neva, which is always crowded with shipping. The great fortress of Cronstadt, built on an island at the head of the Gulf of Finland,

keeps watch and ward over the capital. Other ports on the Baltic are Reval, Riga, and Libau.

15. Russia is mainly an agricultural country. Out of a population of over one hundred and sixty millions no fewer than one hundred and thirty millions are engaged in tilling the soil. From the end of the sixteenth century to the year 1861 the peasants were serfs. After the Crimean War Alexander the Second freed the serfs, and they received, roughly speaking, half the land as their own. The peasants, as a rule, own the land in common—that is, the land of the village is equally divided, usually every twelve years, between the men of the village. Every village is self-governing, and the *Mir*, or village assembly, not only divides the land amongst the peasants, but acts very much like one of our town councils.

16. Although Russia is an old country, the Russian people are in many ways quite young, and their country



RUSSIAN PEASANT WOMEN.



is only now being developed. Not until recent years have the coalfields been opened up. Within reach of Moscow is the Tula coalfield, with many ironworks. Around Warsaw, the old capital of Poland, and around the town of Lodz, we find important textile industries. Kharkov is the centre of the Donetz coalfield, which is now a busy industrial region. Though the Finnish towns are far from the coalfields, they have developed textile and other industries, because they have abundance of water-power. St. Petersburg is also an important manufacturing centre.

17. Russia is divided into provinces, called governments, and each government is under a governor and a vice-governor. The country is governed by a vast network of officials who are responsible to the Czar. Up to a few years ago the people of Russia had no control over this huge army of officials. After the war against Japan public opinion demanded some control, and a State Duma, or Council, was established. Besides the Duma there are other law-making bodies, such as the Senate, which corresponds in some ways to our House of Lords; and the Council of the Empire, to which the bills passed by the Duma are submitted. The Czar's power is only limited by the Duma and the Council of the Empire.

18. All men of twenty-one years are liable to serve in the army for three or four years, but all are not needed. The Russians are a peaceful people, and are not soldiers by nature; when they quarrel they seldom come to blows. Nevertheless, the Russian soldier is a fine, stubborn fighter. He will endure any amount of hardship without complaining, and is indifferent to wounds and death.



## Austria-Hungary.

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### 28. A LAND OF INFINITE VARIETY.

1. We now leave Russia for Austria-Hungary, which lies to its south and west. Russia is a land of remarkable sameness, but Austria-Hungary is a land of infinite variety. No other country of Europe can show such marked differences of surface, scenery, climate, race, and language as Austria-Hungary.

2. In this great composite state there are eight distinct Slav races, as well as Germans, Italians, Magyars, Jews, Armenians, and Gipsies. Though under one sovereign, these races are anything but united. They have no common religion, language, or fatherland. Some ten languages are spoken, and four separate alphabets are in use. The monarchy includes, besides Austria proper, the ancient kingdoms of Bohemia, Hungary, Dalmatia, and Galicia, together with a number of other provinces. Hungary alone retains its king, and he is Emperor of Austria.

3. The surface is almost as varied as the motley population. While Hungary is a vast lowland, and Galicia is a plain, three-fourths of Austria-Hungary is mountainous or hilly, and consists of three great highland regions—the Alps, the Carpathians, and the Sudetic Mountains. Alpine Austria, or the Tyrol, is a romantic land of glittering peaks, mighty glaciers, beautiful lakes, steep and stony passes, pine forests, and grassy slopes. It is naturally a poor country, and the people are chiefly engaged in herding cattle and in

wood-carving. Some mining is also carried on, and the warmer valleys produce vines and wheat.

4. Six out of every ten people in the Tyrol speak German, and the remaining four speak Italian. Some of them retain their old costume and cling to their ancient manners and customs. Innsbruck, the capital, stands on the Inn, which leaps and foams past the old town as it rushes towards the Danube. The quaint gabled houses, the odd-looking streets, and the pretty costumes of the people make Innsbruck a very attractive city. Behind it is a panorama of snow-capped mountains.

5. Austria is very deficient in sea coast. While France has the sea on three sides, and a longer seaboard than a land frontier, Austria only touches an arm of the Mediterranean for about a thousand miles. She has many excellent harbours and deep and sheltered bays on this much-broken coast, but unfortunately a long range of steep limestone mountains cuts them off from the interior and makes communication very difficult.

6. At the head of an open bay is Trieste, the chief, and almost the only, seaport of Austria. It is more Italian than Austrian in appearance, and is now the rival of Venice. A mountain railway unites it with the interior, but it is easier to send bulky produce down the Danube to the Black Sea than across the mountains. Following the coast of the peninsula of Istria, we reach the naval station of Pola, where we are sure to see several Austrian warships lying at anchor. At the head of the gulf on the eastern side of the peninsula stands the Hungarian port of Fiume.

7. The mountainous country of Dalmatia, which lies

along the eastern shore of the Adriatic Sea, varies in breadth from one mile to thirty-five miles. The coast is much broken into deep rock-bound bays and inlets, and is fringed with numberless rocky islands, some large enough to support several thousand inhabitants, while others are mere reefs tenanted only by rabbits and sea birds. In calm weather the inland waters are as still and clear as lakes, while the surrounding hills are bleached almost white by the sun.

8. Some of the towns are very attractive. Ragusa, for example, stands by the sea, and is surrounded by ancient and massive walls and towers. Giant palms and flowering aloes grow wild everywhere. The peasants walk the streets with murderous-looking knives stuck in their belts and crimson cloaks thrown over their shoulders.

9. When we turn to the plateau provinces of Bohemia and Moravia, we are in much more homely countries. Indeed, they greatly resemble Cumberland and Westmorland and the north of England. Hill and dale, pasture and field, mine and factory intermingle, and the gaiety and colour of the south are absent. The inhabitants are chiefly Czechs. They are hard-working, thrifty, intelligent, and enterprising; but they are far from peaceable, and are always ready to fight in defence of their rights.

10. Prague, the capital of Bohemia, stands on the river Moldau, which winds its way through the country from south to north, and breaks through the northern wall of mountains to join the Elbe. In the middle ages Prague was one of the leading cities of Europe, and even now it is one of the finest. Artists from all parts of the world love to visit the city in order to study its ancient buildings. Nowhere is there a city

with so many historical associations. With its towers, spires, minarets, and domes, it seems almost an Eastern city. One of its industries is the manufacture of beautiful glass.

11. Moravia and Silesia lie to the south-east of Bohemia, and stretch over the lowlands to the western chains of the Carpathians. They are crowded countries, with many towns which manufacture linen and woollen goods. Barley and beetroot are grown, and even the vine.



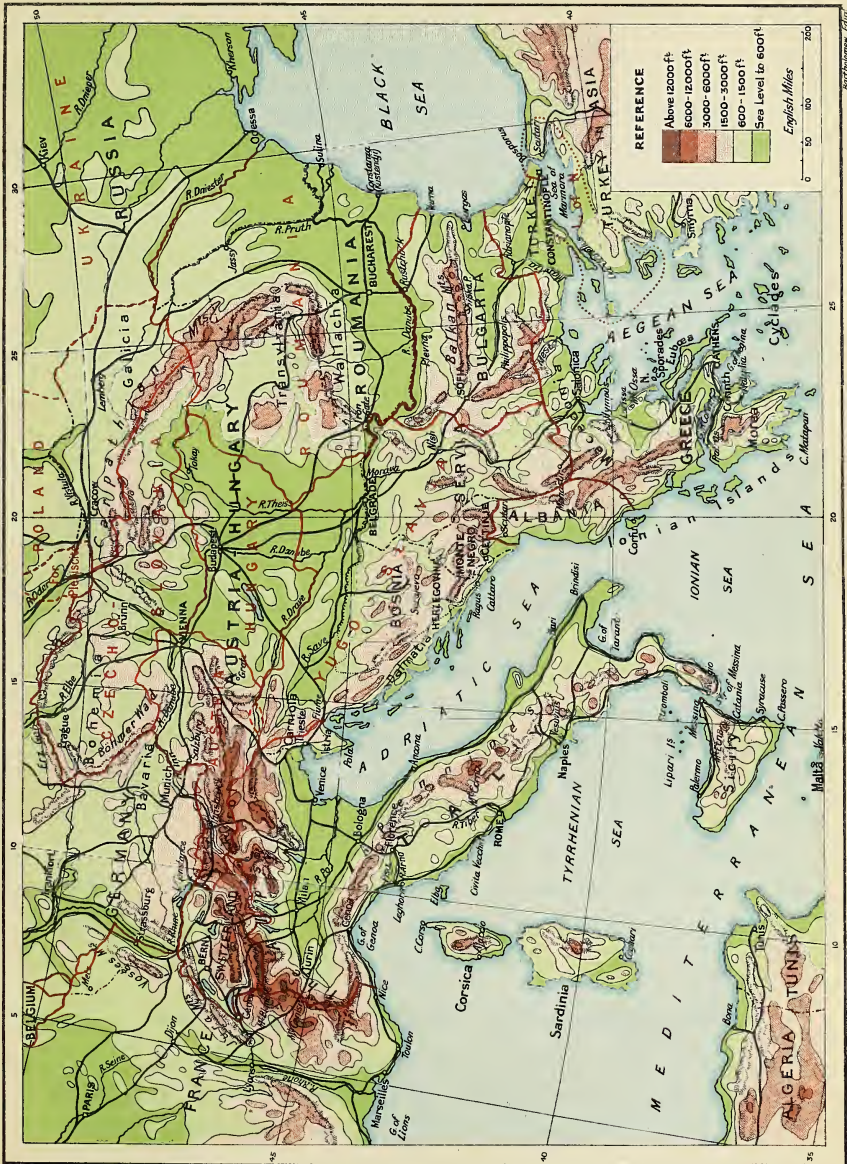
THE CITY OF PRAGUE.

The chief town of Moravia is Brünn, and about twelve miles away is Austerlitz, where Napoleon won one of his greatest battles in the year 1805. Silesia has an important coalfield, and a good deal of iron is manufactured.

12. To the east of Silesia is Galicia, which has the Carpathians for its southern boundary. The Carpathians are rather a series of rocky tablelands than a connected chain, but in the High Tatra, which stands to the east of



## AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BALKAN PENINSULA &amp; ITALY



Present Boundaries shown in Red



Silesia, we find a grand mountain wall, with steep rocky ramparts and jagged crests. Its highest point exceeds eight thousand seven hundred feet, and snow remains on it almost to midsummer. Beautiful lakes lie in the cup-shaped hollows. The gem of all these lakes stands four thousand feet above sea-level.

13. The Carpathians, however, fall short of the snow-line, and they contain no glaciers. Their lower slopes are covered with forests of beech, oak, and fir, and higher up the pine finds a foothold. Most of the mountains of Austria are deserted, and this accounts for the number of wild animals which still remain. Both here and in Bohemia and Galicia we find bears, boars, wolves, lynxes, jackals, and wild cats. When the winter is very severe these creatures frequently enter lonely hamlets and carry off children or domestic animals.

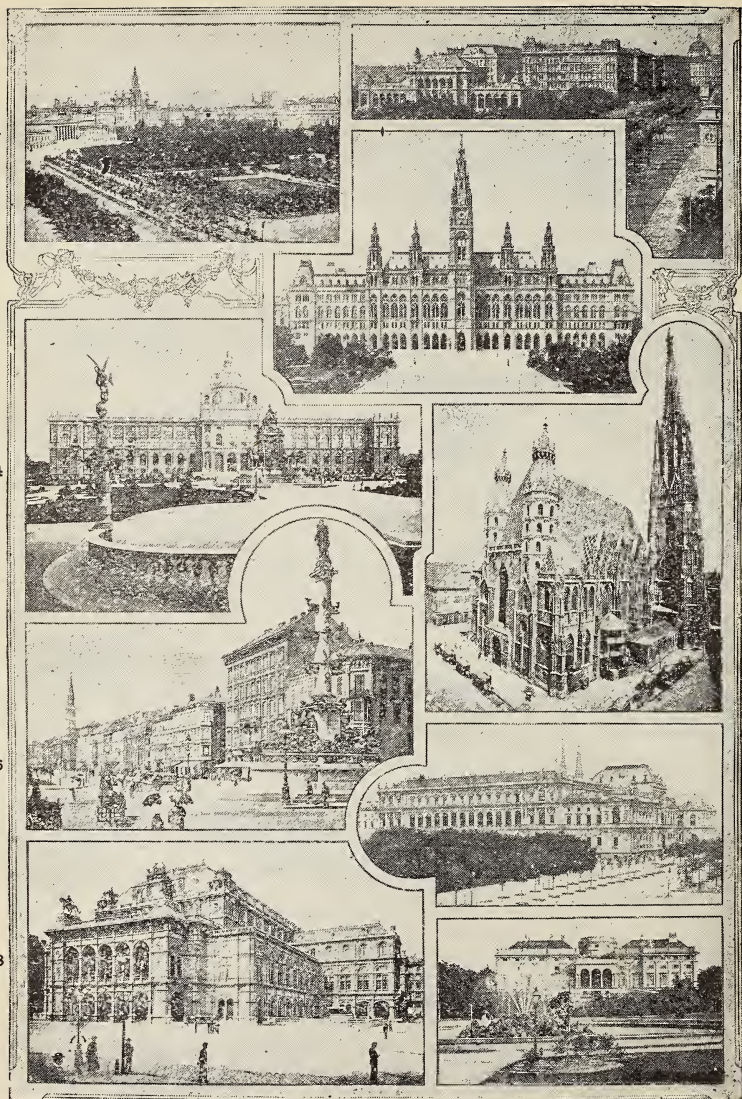
14. The river Vistula, which flows to the Baltic, rises in the Carpathians and flows by the wonderful old city of Cracow, which was formerly the capital of Poland, and still bears the marks of a capital. In its cathedral Polish kings and heroes lie buried; the royal palace is now used as barracks. Ten miles from Cracow is a small town famous for its mines of rock salt. There we find a salt city underground, with streets, squares, and tramways.

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## 29. THE LAND OF THE MAGYAR.

1. You already know that Austrian trade is much hampered by the mountain barrier which cuts off the interior from the coast. The great highway of trade is,





# VIEWS IN VIENNA.

1. Franzensring. 2. The Kursaal. 3. The Rathaus. 4. The Museum. 5. St. Stephen's Cathedral.
6. Tegethoff Monument and Praterstrasse. 7. University. 8. Opera House. 9. Schwarzenberg Palace.



therefore, the noble river Danube, which we followed in an earlier lesson from source to sea. Just before the river enters the Hungarian Gate, it sweeps past Vienna, the capital of Austria.

2. Vienna is a city of gaiety and fashion, but of much trade as well. It is not only the largest city of Austria-Hungary, but the heart and centre of the land. The emperor resides in it, and it is the headquarters of the Austrian Parliament and of all the great departments of State. Few cities have such fine public buildings and so many art treasures, while its splendid park, known as the Prater, has scarcely a rival in Europe. It is surrounded by the Danube and its canals, and covers nearly seven square miles. The Viennese love to walk in its shady avenues and to sit at the tables of the outdoor cafés listening to the strains of the bands for which the city is famous all the world over.

3. In the heart of the city, almost hidden by houses, is the beautiful cathedral of St. Stephen. For more than six hundred years this magnificent pile has lifted its towers to the sky. It has seen the Turks besieging the city and the French marching through the streets. Vienna has also a grimy industrial quarter, with iron and engine works, many metal foundries, and factories in which furniture, clothes, leather, and fancy wares are made. Large wide streets are now taking the place of slums, and the people of Vienna are active in making their city not only beautiful, but healthy as well.

4. As soon as we pass the Hungarian Gate we are in the land of the Magyar. Hungary ranks as seventh in size

amongst European states. Situated in the very centre of Europe, just where the west ends and the east begins, it has acted for centuries as a breakwater against the waves of invasion from the Orient. It is a fascinating land of music, poetry, and old beliefs; a land of surprises, of rich and wonderful contrasts, of strange customs and costumes.

5. Budapest, the capital of Hungary, is a twin city of quite unique character. As you know, Buda stands on the high right bank of the Danube, and Pest on the low left bank of the river. To see Buda and its hills from the Pest side of the river is one of the finest sights of the world. We see on the one hand a dismantled fortress, and on the other a fine church which was once a Turkish mosque. Between these historic landmarks stands the superb new palace of the king. The city is built on a height which reminds the traveller of Quebec.

6. Pest has nothing historical to show us; it is the business part of the twin city. Nevertheless it contains a new Parliament House, the Palace of Justice, and the University. Pest is a city of shops, theatres, and hotels, and at night music is heard at every turn. The two cities, which jointly contain nearly nine hundred thousand inhabitants, are united by six magnificent bridges.

7. From Budapest to the borders of mountainous Transylvania, and from Tokay, famous for its wine, to Belgrade, the capital of Servia, the whole country is one vast river-made plain, marshy in some parts, dry and parched in others, and elsewhere deep in loam, but on the whole of wonderful fertility. Here, on this vast wide expanse, we may sometimes see the mirage. The plain is tenanted by

herds of long-horned cattle tended by mounted herdsmen, who wield the lasso as skilfully as the American cowboy. No stranger can hope to find his way across this treeless and featureless plain at night without a guide.

8. The plain is dotted here and there with villages, usually of quaint one-storied houses. The peasant women are clad in home-made clothes, adorned with home-made embroidery, and they usually go about their work barefooted. The men cultivate long heavy moustaches, and wear jack-boots, and waistcoats and jackets of wonderful colour. Sometimes we may see a cowherd in a magnificent cloak, or in a sheepskin coat that almost hides him. Great solid-wheeled carts also add to the novelty of the scene.

9. Hungary, however, is not all plain. We already know that the Carpathians of the north can show grand mountain scenery and dense forests. In Transylvania we also find a wild highland region of lofty peaks, deep gorges, and green hillsides. Hungary is thus a land of rich variety, not only in physical features, but in the character and appearance of its population. Travellers tell us that the great variety of costume worn by the people, their good-hearted, open-handed character, the weird music of the Gypsies, and the sounds of the difficult Magyar tongue, are the chief impressions which they carry away from the country.

10. Less than one-half of the people of Hungary are Magyars. They are said to be kinsmen of the Finns, though they are very different from them in character. Every Magyar believes himself to be noble, and all are proud and dignified in bearing. So much do they love their native

land that they say, "Life outside Hungary is not life." The Magyar can do great things when fortune smiles on him, but when he has difficulties to overcome he is easily cast down. He has no taste for trade, but he loves politics and is a born gambler. Music is his great delight.

11. There are three Slav races in Hungary—the Croatian, the Slovak, and the Ruthenian. The Germans are the most industrious section of the population. They are thrifty and careful, clean, and easily disciplined ; and they, along with the Jews, carry on the commerce of the country. The Serbs, who are found in the extreme south, are a very alert race and full of energy. The Gypsies form a very picturesque group. Many of them have settled down in the country, and they make excellent blacksmiths and wonderful musicians. Some twenty thousand of them still roam from place to place. One half the people are Roman Catholics, and one-fifth are Protestants.

12. With such a mixture of races, creeds, and languages there are sure to be strong differences of opinion. The Magyars are the ruling race, and they are slow to give the other races the rights which they themselves enjoy. The ruling race in Austria is the German, and, strange to say, in both countries the most powerful section of the people is in a minority. Between Austria and Hungary there is no love lost. Each country has its own Parliament, and equal numbers from each are chosen to decide upon those matters which are common to both. The army is common to the two halves of the empire, but even in its management there is little unity. In recent years the Magyars have been greatly annoyed at the use of Austrian words of command



for Hungarian troops. Indeed, nothing keeps Austria and Hungary in union but the common bond of the king-emperor.

13. The story of Austria is the history of a family and not of a state. In the year 1272 the princes of Germany chose as King of the Romans a count of somewhat lowly rank and poor fortune, named Rudolf of Hapsburg. Rudolf soon showed himself a



HUNGARIAN PEASANTS.

resolute and ambitious man. He overcame the King of Bohemia, and seized his archduchy of Austria. Thenceforward down to the present time the history of Austria is the history of the Hapsburg family.

14. By prudent marriages, and by bargains and arrangements of all sorts, the Hapsburgs gathered to themselves crowns and coronets all over Europe. The kingdoms of

Spain, Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia fell to them, as also did Hungary and the rich Netherlands. In the sixteenth century, however, their dominions were divided between the Austrian and the Spanish branches of the family. In 1700 the last Hapsburg King of Spain died childless, and after the war which followed, the Spanish crown passed to the Bourbons. The Austrian Hapsburgs, however, were kings of the Romans until 1806, when they resigned the empty honour, and thenceforward contented themselves with the title of Emperor of Austria.

15. Before we close this chapter, a few words must be said about the industries of the country. Agriculture in Austria, as in Hungary, is the chief occupation of the people. Industrial Austria is chiefly confined to Bohemia, Silesia, Moravia, and Lower Austria. Here coal and iron mining is carried on. Petroleum is produced in Galicia, and quicksilver in Carniola. There are also manufactures of cotton, silk, and woollen goods, paper, pottery, and glass. In the mountainous parts of Hungary mining is beginning to be important. The State owns valuable salt deposits, but private companies are engaged in mining gold, silver, copper, iron, and coal.

## The Story of Turkey in Europe.

By G. F. Abbott, author of "Macedonian Folklore,"  
"Turkey in Transition," etc.

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### 30. A DWINDLING EMPIRE.

1. If we look closely at the map, we shall see that the Alps are continued round the head of the Adriatic Sea into the Balkan Peninsula by a series of ranges which run parallel with and near to the western coast. The Balkan Mountains, which give their name to the peninsula, are a continuation of the Carpathians, and are only cut off from them by the narrow gorge of the Iron Gate.

2. The Balkans, or Stony Mountains of the ancients, first strike south-east, and then east, to end on the shores of the Black Sea. They are not lofty mountains, and they slope gently to the north in vine or forest clad terraces with rich pasture lands on the higher slopes. The southern face is much steeper, and some of the passes are mere tracks. One of the best known of these is the Shipka Pass, which was gallantly held during the Russo-Turkish War of 1877 by seven thousand Russians against thirty thousand Turks.

3. Between the western ranges and the Balkans a long furrow sweeps round from the Danube to the Ægean Sea. The northern portion of this furrow is formed by the broad valley of the Morava, which flows northwards to the Danube. The south-eastern portion is the valley of the Maritza, which flows through the rich plain of Eastern Rumelia to empty itself into the Ægean Sea. The old

road from the north to Constantinople lay along this furrow, and the modern railway follows the same route.

4. The Maritza valley is bounded on the south by a wild, rugged highland district, almost parallel with the Balkans and known as the Despoto Dagh. Between this range and the mountains of the west is another furrow



TURKISH MARKET PLACE.

formed by the valley of the Vardar. In these furrows lie the chief trade routes and the most important towns.

5. The Balkan Peninsula is occupied by seven independent countries. In the north lie the states of Montenegro; Albania, Servia, Roumania, and Bulgaria. Greece forms the southern part of the peninsula. The other country is Turkey in Europe, which prior to the Balkan War of



1912-13 stretched from the Adriatic Sea to the Black Sea, and contained the three old divisions of Albania, Macedonia, and Thrace or Adrianople. All that is now left in Europe of the once mighty Ottoman Empire lies to the east of the river Maritza.

6. Albania is the wildest and most picturesque country that can be imagined. It is one mass of high blue mountains, which rise here and there to snow-capped peaks. On these hills there is little vegetation, and even the valleys are generally dry and stony. A few ill-tilled fields of wheat and maize may be seen, and in the south there are some vineyards and olive groves ; but for the most part the lowlands and the uplands of Albania are used for pasture rather than for agriculture.

7. The Albanians are very poor and very ignorant, yet they are a clever people and learn quickly. The Turkish Government always forbade them to have schools in which their own language might be taught. Until lately they were even forbidden to print books in their own tongue. Nevertheless, they are a highly artistic people, and produce beautiful work in gold and silver. They are chiefly Mohammedans, though some of them have remained Christian. Like most highlanders, they are united in clans under their own chiefs. Brave, hospitable, and loyal, they have also many vices, and a traveller is not safe in the wilder parts unless he is protected by a powerful chief. Albania became a separate state in 1913, and will ultimately become self-governing under a prince chosen by the Great Powers.

8. The chief town of Albania is Scutari, which contains about thirty-three thousand inhabitants. It stands at the



Constantinople.

southern end of a shallow lake, on which we may see many hawks, eagles, and pelicans. Scutari is not a true Albanian town, for the Albanian is not a townsman, the shopkeepers being usually Greek, Turkish, or Italian.

9. We now begin to travel south towards Macedonia. All round us are the wild hills, partly covered with forests of fir and pine and beech, in which lurk many wolves and foxes. Here we see something of the everyday life of the mountaineer. The women do all the hard work, both in field and hut. The men tend the flocks, and carry on ceaseless feuds with their Servian neighbours. War and brigandage are really the only industries which flourish amongst these wild hill tribes. High up amongst the rocks we see the castles of the tribal chiefs.

10. Macedonia is a curious country, with a sad history. It is less picturesque than Albania, but richer, and might have been prosperous but for the bad rule of the Turk. Until quite recently the mountains were the strongholds of brigands, who preyed on the hapless peasants in the plains. The Turkish police were too often in league with these robbers, and did nothing to bring them to justice. The Macedonian farmer has had to pay heavy taxes to the Turk, heavy rents to the landlord, and blackmail to the brigands in the mountains. We need not wonder, therefore, that Macedonia has always been discontented, and that there have been many risings of the people during the last twenty years.

11. The population is composed of Christian Bulgarians, Servians, and Greeks, as well as of Mohammedans. The Mohammedans hate the Christians, and as they alone under

Turkish rule were allowed to bear arms, the poor Christians were at their mercy. Their fellow-Christians and kinsmen in the neighbouring free states have given them sympathy and support in their endeavour to shake off their crushing yoke. These facts explain why Macedonia, though much better off than Albania, has not yet been able to use to the full its fertile plains, large rivers, splendid harbours, and railways.

12. From Monastir we take the train to Salonica, a former Turkish city, now within the borders of Greece. In the old days it was called Thessalonica, and is known to the whole of the Christian world from the epistles of St. Paul. One of the best ports and most active trading-places of the eastern Mediterranean, it stands at the head of the broad and deep Gulf of Salonica, and is connected with the outer world by three railways. From Salonica the grain, cotton, and tobacco of Macedonia are exported. Macedonia is now divided between Bulgaria, Greece, and Servia.

13. We must now visit Thrace, the eastern portion of which is now all that remains of Turkey in Europe. Thrace lies east of the Despoto Dagħ, which has already been mentioned, and the river Mesta. It consists of a vast plain, which stretches to the Black Sea on the east and to the Ægean Sea and the Sea of Marmora on the south. Through the middle of it meanders the broad, slow river Maritza. Though the plain is well watered, and is crossed by the railway which unites Constantinople with Western Europe, it is little better than a lonely and lifeless prairie.

14. Where the plain is cultivated it is very fruitful, and produces all kinds of grain and some of the best tobacco in the world. The coastal region, however, is barren, and



is fringed with unhealthy marshes. After Constantinople the only important town in this province is Adrianople, the ancient capital of the sultans. It is a large walled city, standing at the junction of the Maritza and the Tunja. The upper part of the city is built upon the rounded slopes of a low hill crowned by the gray ruins of a citadel.



GROUP OF TURKS.

15. We must now move on to Constantinople, the capital of the Ottoman Empire, and one of the most wonderful cities of the world. The ancient city has not only a lovely situation, but is so situated that it ought to be both rich and powerful. It commands the narrow gate between two continents, and the passage between

the Mediterranean Sea and the Black Sea. From the shores of the latter sea comes an immense quantity of wheat, which must pass by Constantinople to enter the Mediterranean and proceed to the great crowded cities of the north, where the wheat is consumed. The master of Constantinople, whoever he may be, holds the keys of the gate through which much of the food of Europe must pass.

16. Constantinople is also favoured with the Golden Horn, one of the safest and loveliest harbours in the world. Like a broad and deep river it curves between the hills into the very heart of the capital, and divides Stamboul, the Turkish city, from the European suburbs of Galata and Pera. The Golden Horn gives anchorage to vessels of the highest tonnage, and here we see ships flying the flags of every nation.

17. In the city is the great mosque of St. Sophia. From the outside it is not worth a second glance, but within it is a marvel of beauty, despite the ravages of centuries. The city also contains the Seraglio, which stands by the sea, and is surrounded by walls with towers. Here dwells the Sultan, the head of the Turkish Empire as well as head of the Mohammedan religion.

18. The story of Turkey in Europe may be told in outline in a few words. In the fourteenth century a Mohammedan people of a very warlike character dwelt in what is now Asia Minor. Gathering their forces together, they crossed the narrow strait which divided them from Europe, and in a few years made themselves masters of all the Balkan Peninsula, and set up their capital at Constantinople. They were greedy for territory, and pushed

through the great plain of Hungary ; but near to Vienna, in the year 1683, they were beaten back, and forced to confine themselves to the lands which they had first conquered.

19. Until quite recent times the Turk ruled from Cape Matapan right up to the Danube. The Christians in the Balkan Peninsula were not content to live under the bad and cruel government of Mohammedans, and, helped by the mountainous character of the country, they managed to keep up something of a fight for independence. The other European nations at length came to their aid, and one by one six independent Christian states have been carved out of the land formerly ruled by the Turk.

20. Until a few years ago the Sultan was the most absolute sovereign on earth. In July 1908 a great change took place in the government of Turkey. The Young Turks, a body of enlightened and patriotic men, rose in rebellion against the Sultan, and set up a form of government in which the people had a share.

21. In October 1912 first Montenegro, then Bulgaria, Servia, and Greece declared war upon Turkey. The contest was unequal, and the Turkish troops were forced to withdraw almost to the gates of Constantinople. The treaty of peace between Turkey and the allied Balkan States, signed in London on May 30, 1913, defined the territory—including Adrianople—to be ceded to the Allies. Dissension, however, arose among the Allies, and Turkey seized this opportunity to recapture Adrianople, which still remains in her hands. The terms of peace between Bulgaria and the Balkan Allies and Roumania were settled provisionally on August 10, 1913, by the Treaty of Bucharest.

## The Balkan States.

By Miss Edith Durham, author of "The Burden of the Balkans,"  
"Through the Land of the Serb," etc.

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### 31. FOUR LITTLE KINGDOMS.

1. A steamer from Venice or Trieste will carry us to the Austrian port of Cattaro, which stands on a lovely bay on the Dalmatian coast. From Cattaro our road zigzags up a mountain side until we reach the frontier, 2,000 feet above the sea. High above us towers a summit reaching 5,000 feet, and all around us is gray, broken rock, with a few patches of cultivated land. When we reach the crest of the ridge, we see before us a large plain ringed about with mountains. This is the plain of Cetinje, and the little red-roofed town at the end of the plain is Cetinje, the capital of Montenegro. Forty years ago it was a straw-thatched village; now it is a bright, clean little town with a Parliament House and the palace of the king.

2. Now that we are in the capital, let us learn something of the country. It is now nearly the size of Wales, and is the smallest kingdom in Europe. It was never under Turkish rule, though the Turks tried hard to take it. In 1878 it became a free country, and was given thirty miles of coast on which it now has one or two seaports. In 1910 its prince was allowed by the powers of Europe to take the title of king. The country is naturally a rocky stronghold, and this accounts for its independence.

3. The Montenegrins are Slavs of the same race as the



Servians. They are perhaps the finest and strongest people in Europe. They wear a picturesque costume, consisting of tight breeches, a braided jacket, and a little round black cap. This cap is worn as a sign of mourning for the defeat of the Servian race in a great battle. Every Montenegrin bears arms—generally a long old-fashioned gun and a huge knife in an ornamented sheath.

4. We now cross into Serbia, which is a highland country, with long, deep, narrow valleys, through which the rivers find their way to the Danube. The rivers Save and Danube form the northern boundary of Serbia. Unlike Montenegro, Serbia has felt the iron heel of Turkey. In 1389 the Servians and their allies were defeated in the great battle of Kossovo, and the country became a Turkish province. In 1878 the Great Powers met to settle the Eastern Question: Serbia's borders were enlarged, and her prince was made king. Since that time she has had a troubled and stormy career. Having considerably extended her area as the result of the Balkan War, she is now about the size of Ireland.



A MONTENEGRIN.

5. The capital is Belgrade, "the White City," which stands high on a hill overlooking the Save, at the point where it joins the muddy Danube. On the top of the hill we can see the castle and walls of the old town. Few

places have been the scene of fiercer fighting. Under Turkish rule the country was very backward, and its capital a poor place. Now it is a modern town with wide streets, electric tramways, and large public buildings.

6. In the south of the country we find lower hills, and a rich land with vineyards, and fields of wheat, maize, and tobacco. Around every little village we see a big orchard of plum trees. Pigs and plums are Servia's most important products. If we were to travel through the country in early spring, we should specially admire the wonderful beauty of the plum blossom.

7. The Servians are a tall and handsome race. In the middle of the country we find many people with fair hair and gray eyes, but elsewhere the inhabitants have dark hair and dark eyes, like other southern races. Their costume almost bewilders us in its variety. Every district has its own special kind of dress, and some of the peasant women wear beautifully embroidered garments. On feast days they adorn themselves with silver ornaments.

8. Servia is trying hard to make up for the time and opportunities which were lost under Turkish rule. Every town and village has now a good school, and there are colleges for teaching farming and gardening. The roads are being improved, and better methods of tilling the land are being adopted. So far the country has not been fortunate in its government ; but the people are strong, and in the future they may be not only wealthy, but wise as well.

9. Northwards of the Danube and eastwards of the Iron Gate is the kingdom of Roumania, the most flourishing of

all the European countries which were once in the hands of the Turks. If we consider the great river as the northern boundary of the Balkan Peninsula, Roumania cannot be called a Balkan state. As, however, it was Turkish up to the year 1878, it may conveniently be treated here.

10. From the map you will see that Roumania is almost entirely a flat plain, enclosed between the Carpathian Mountains, the river Danube, the river Pruth, and the Black Sea. It is well watered by a multitude of rivers, and the great stream of the Danube provides it with a waterway to the sea. It is fortunate, too, in having the good port of Constantza, on the Black Sea. Its great plains make it very suitable for the growth of all kinds of grain crops, and Roumania, for its size, is one of the richest wheat-producing areas in the world. It is also very rich in petroleum, and the chief industry of the towns is the refining of oil. Roumania took no active part in the Balkan War of 1912-13, but it seized the opportunity to extend its borders at the expense of Bulgaria.

11. The railway from Vienna to Constantza runs through the heart of the great plain. As we journey by this railway we see, far to the north, the blue line of the Carpathians. A little more than half-way across the plain, and about thirty miles north of the Danube, we reach Bucharest, the capital. It has been called the "Paris of the East," and it has many boulevards and fine avenues.

12. Roumania won its freedom for the gallant part which it played as the ally of Russia against Turkey in the war of 1877-8. After the war was over, the Powers decided that

Roumania should be free, and its prince became king. At his coronation he wore a crown made from Turkish guns captured at Plevna in 1877. Like most of the people of the other Balkan states, the Roumanians belong to the Greek Church.

13. South of Roumania lies the kingdom of Bulgaria, which now stretches from the Danube to the Ægean Sea. Across the country from east to west runs the main chain of the Balkans, which divides it into two tracts of lowland. The northern slopes of the Balkans are broken and wooded, but very fertile. The country is watered by streams flowing northwards to the great river. South of the range is the valley of the Maritza, which in its lower course traverses Thrace, and forms the boundary between Bulgaria and Turkey. Here we find flat plains, which are in striking contrast with the country on the other side of the Balkans.

14. Bulgaria is almost entirely an agricultural country, but the farming is of a very rough character. In the valleys grain is grown, and in the lowlands vines, tobacco, and cotton. Many silkworms are kept, and a good deal of silk is produced. There is also a considerable trade in attar of roses, produced from the wide-spreading rose fields in the sheltered valleys of the Balkans. It is said that Bulgaria has much mineral wealth; but, so far, only coal and iron have been mined to any extent.

15. The railway from Vienna to Constantinople runs through Sofia, the capital. It is a rather dull city, situated high up in a mountain valley, and in winter is one of the coldest places in Europe. The other important towns in the northern section are the fortified places along the



high bank of the Danube. These command the ferries, and are of the utmost importance for defence against an invader from the north. The chief of them is Rustchuk, an arsenal and river port, which is joined to the capital by railway. Bulgaria has several ports on the Black Sea, the most important of which are Varna and Burgas. During the Crimean War the British landed their stores at Varna.

16. In Southern Bulgaria, which is also known as Eastern Rumelia, we find Philippopolis, the second important town of the country. It stands on the Maritza, and is a busy, thriving town which has robbed Adrianople, farther down the river, of most of its trade. Philippopolis manufactures silk, cotton, leather, and attar of roses. Southern Bulgaria has a richer soil and a milder climate than Northern Bulgaria.

17. In the war of 1877-8, which was largely carried on in Bulgaria, the Bulgarians threw in their lot with the Russians and fought gallantly. After the war the Powers placed Bulgaria under a prince, but did not make it quite independent of Turkey. On October 5, 1908, Prince Ferdinand boldly announced that Bulgaria was an independent kingdom, and after some difficulty the claim was admitted. Bulgaria, however, had to pay the Sultan a sum of money amounting to nearly five million pounds.

18. The Bulgarian is a great contrast to his neighbours. He has none of the quickness of the Greek, nor the passion of the Servian. He is, however, very industrious, peaceable, and patient, and his country is more law-abiding than any other part of the Balkans. The Bulgarian army, for its size, is one of the best in Europe.

## Greece.

By John Buchan.

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### 32. "THE GLORY THAT WAS GREECE."

1. Greece is a little state, not quite so large nor so populous as England, yet it is the most famous country in all the world. For two thousand years it was governed by foreign races—the Romans, the Franks, the Phœnicians, and the Turks—and only since 1830 has it been independent. Yet all educated men and women are brought up to study the history of Greece, and to read the books which the old Greeks wrote more than three hundred years before the birth of Christ. The whole world owes a vast debt to this little country of Greece.

2. The ancient Greeks were not only clever, but they loved beauty and order, and they made everything about them, in their cities and homes and daily life, beautiful and harmonious. Their statues and buildings have never had an equal. Every library has its shelves crowded with the works of their writers, and every museum is full of the statues and vases of their artists. These works are still imitated and admired, but have never been excelled. They are models for all time, and this is what we mean when we say that they are classical.

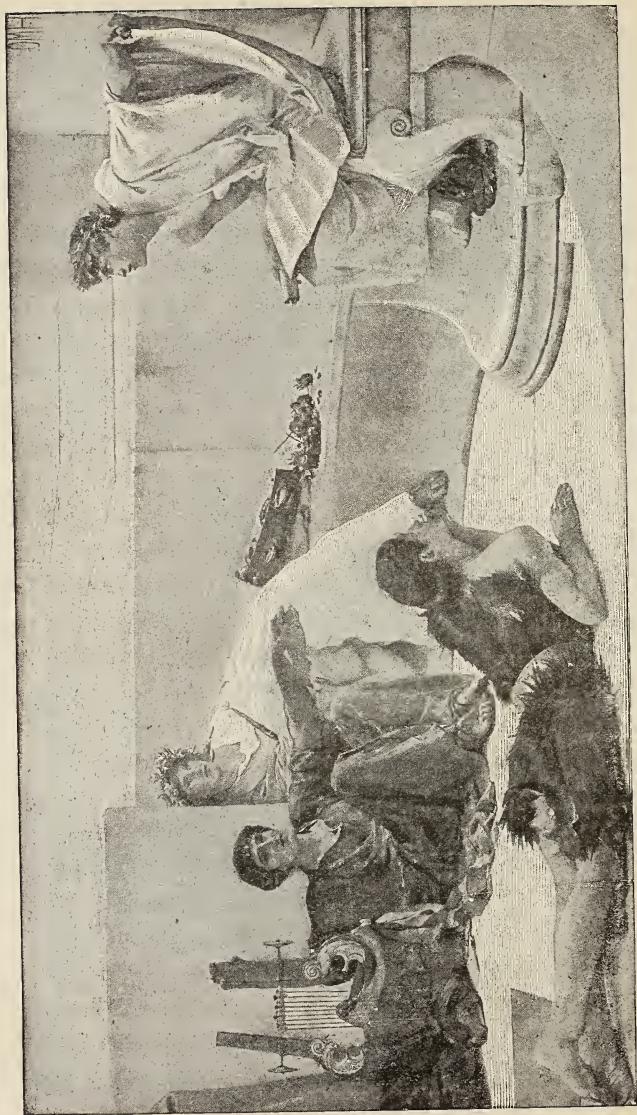
3. When you are older you will learn the names of some of the great men who lived and worked in the glorious days of ancient Greece. You will read of her great thinkers, playwrights, historians, sculptors, statesmen, and heroes, and you will marvel that so small a country in such remote

times could have produced such a long and splendid array of gifted men. In one single century Greece gave birth to far more famous citizens than many great empires have produced in the whole course of their history. How do we account for this?

4. Greece, as we already know, forms the southern end of the Balkan Peninsula. It is deeply indented by bays and gulfs, and, except for a few plains near the coast, is a land of high and bare mountains. None of the rivers are navigable, and most of them are mere hill torrents which run dry in summer. The soil on the uplands is poor; the summer is hot, and water is scarce. Greece has always been a poor country, and this means that its people have been trained to work hard, and to make much out of little.

5. The sea, too, played its part in the making of the Greeks. There are few places in the land from which a short walk will not give you a glimpse of the sea. Poverty and the nearness of the sea breed a sailor race, and therefore the early inhabitants were seafarers, traders, and explorers. They cruised all over the Mediterranean Sea, founding colonies, building cities, and fighting battles. In course of time they became the greatest trading nation and sea power of the Western world. The Persians tried to conquer them, but were driven back with great slaughter, and the Greeks were left in peace. Then their natural love of beauty, and their desire to know all that could be known of themselves and the world around them, had full play, and thus great writers and artists arose.

6. In later times the glory of Greece departed, and finally the Turks conquered the land. The Greeks hated their



IN THE PALMY DAYS OF GREECE.  
(From the picture by Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema. Copyright of the Berlin Photographic Co.)



bondage; but though they rose several times, they could not shake off the yoke of the Turk. At length, on January 1, 1822, they declared themselves free, and a war followed. Lord Byron, the English poet, and many others who loved Greece for the sake of her ancient renown, took up arms in her cause. Greece was declared independent, and she has remained so ever since. In 1897 Greek and Turk once more went to war, but Greece was utterly overcome. In the Balkan War of 1912-13, however, the Turks were routed, and the borders of Greece were extended northwards.

7. Our map shows us that the country is nearly cleft in two by the Gulf of Corinth and the Gulf of Ægina. The Isthmus of Corinth, a land bridge, three and a half miles wide, and pierced by a ship canal, alone unites the northern with the southern part, known as the Morea. We see, too, that the mountains of the Balkan Peninsula are continued into Greece, which has many steep and rugged highlands of limestone. The highest and best-known mountains lie near the north-eastern coast. Here we find Olympus, which the old Greeks believed to be the home of the gods. Not far away is Mount Ossa, and farther south is Mount Pelion, which, according to an old story, the giants piled together in their war with Zeus. It was at the foot of Pelion that the great Persian fleet was almost destroyed by a storm.

8. If we sail along the eastern coast, we shall see the long range of hills that ends with Pelion, and ahead of us many rocky islands. These are the Northern Sporades, which support a small population of fishermen. We now enter a channel, and see on our right hand the Gulf of

Volo, and on our left hand the large island of Eubœa, separated from the mainland by a long narrow strait. Eubœa is wild and hilly, but contains good farms and vineyards, as well as mines.

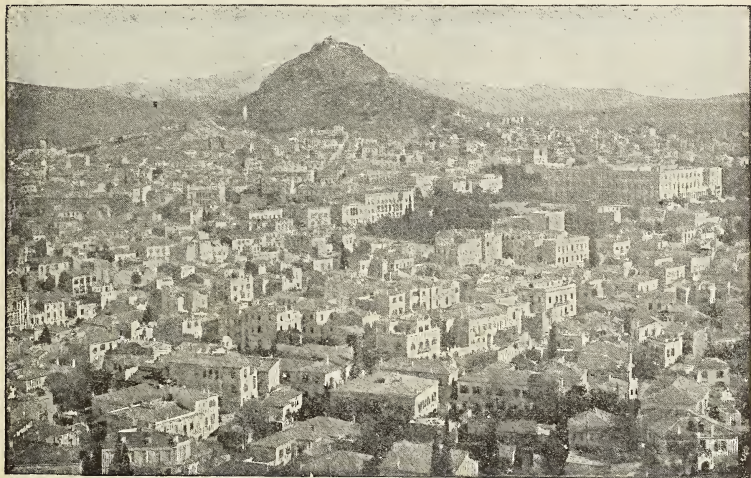
9. Following this strait, we enter a shallow bay and anchor nearly a mile from the shore. Before us we see a great wall of cliffs with high mountains behind them on the west and north. This is the famous pass of Thermopylæ, famous for ever as the spot where three hundred Spartans perished to the last man in defence of their beloved country.

10. If we make an excursion inland we shall see something of the people. As we pass along the country roads we see finely-made peasants working in the fields, and manly-looking shepherds on the hills. Here and there we pass a young man in the national costume. He wears a white jacket, white breeches, and curious shoes with large rosettes on the turned-up toes. On his head is a little tasselled cap.

11. The Greek peasants whom we see have very little of the blood of the old Greeks in their veins. Their forefathers have intermarried with their conquerors, and the modern Greek is a mixture of many races. He is a clever trader—too clever sometimes, for he is apt to be cunning and untruthful. Children are compelled by law to attend school, but many parts of the country are so wild and mountainous that the law is not easily enforced. Thus it happens that many of the Greeks, though quick and fond of learning, are very ignorant.

12. From Thermopylæ we continue our sail through the

narrow channel between the island of Eubœa and the mainland. On our right rises the huge mass of Mount Parnassus, which the ancient Greeks believed to be the chosen abode of the god of poetry and music. On we sail, past multitudes of small islands, round Cape Colonna, which Byron called "Sunium's marble steep," and entering the Gulf of Ægina, reach the harbour of the Piræus, the port of Athens.



MODERN ATHENS.

13. The railway from the ugly little port to the capital, four miles away, crosses a perfectly flat plain, seamed with dry ditches and covered with little orchards and fields. Presently we see the beginning of houses and streets, and several rocks crowned with towers. These are all famous spots in the history of the famous city. Beyond is a low ridge, the Areopagus, or Mars' Hill, where St. Paul

preached. Then a larger rock appears, crowned with a great temple. This is the Acropolis, the citadel of Athens; and the temple is the Parthenon.

14. Time fails us to visit all the ancient and historic sites and buildings of Athens. To the student of ancient history Athens is a city of sheer delight. It is now a cheerful little place, with shops full of French and German goods. In the Palace Square stands the Royal Palace, and near it are the Houses of Parliament. There are fine public gardens, and in the south-east of the city are the Temple of Jupiter, and a magnificent stadium for the Olympic games. The museum contains the finest specimens of Greek art in all the world.

15. None of the other cities of Greece need detain us long. Corinth was once the great rival of Athens. It has now dwindled to an unimportant place. The small dried grapes known as currants derive their name from the town. Next to Athens, the chief seats of Greek trade are Patras and Nauplia; and to these must be added the former Turkish port of Salonica, which we have already described.

16. Off the coast of Southern Albania lie the Ionian Islands, the chief of which is Corfu. It is a long cultivated island, blazing with flowers in the early summer. The chief town, Corfu, has a curiously English appearance. There are barracks, just as in an English garrison town, and the roads are laid out on the English plan. This may puzzle us until we remind ourselves that for many years the Ionian Islands were in the hands of the British. In 1864, to the great regret of the inhabitants, we handed them over to Greece.



## Italy.

By Richard Bagot, author of "The Lakes of North Italy," etc.

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### 33. FROM TURIN TO ROME.

1. We now turn to the lovely land of Italy, the second of the three great peninsulas which thrust themselves into the Mediterranean Sea. We already know that Italy is cut off from the rest of Europe by the Alps, which rise high above the northern plain. We know, too, that the peninsula is long and narrow, and that a range of mountains, known as the Apennines, runs through its whole length. With a slight break at the Straits of Messina, the backbone of mountains is continued into the island of Sicily. One might almost say that Italy consists of the Apennines and its offshoots, for except in the north the country contains but little level ground.

2. Some of the Apennine peaks have been formed by volcanoes, but in the main chain no active volcano now exists. Nor are any of the peaks snow-capped all the year round. Monte Corno rears its head 9,580 feet, but even at this height snow cannot remain during summer in Italy. Forests are generally absent; only the lower slopes are well covered with trees.

3. The only rivers of importance are to be found in the northern plain. Elsewhere the watershed of the Apennines is too near the coasts to leave room for useful streams. Even the largest of the rivers, the Po, is full of sandbanks and shallows. The only other rivers worth mention are the Arno and the Tiber, and both shrink in summer so as to be of little use for navigation.

4. We enter Italy from France by the Mont Cenis Tunnel, and after travelling seven and a half miles beneath the great mountain mass, emerge into the bright sunlight and see the great green plain of Lombardy stretching before us.

5. A run of some forty or fifty miles brings us to the city of Turin, on the river Po. Formerly, Turin was the capital of the kingdom of Sardinia, and it still contains a royal palace. It has many interesting streets and squares, a university, several long tree-shaded avenues, and a beautiful park down by the river, on which the youth of the place disport themselves in rowing boats. Turin is an important centre for the manufacture of motor cars, and thousands of hands are employed in the factories.

6. We now travel south-east from Turin across a rich agricultural country, and pass many flourishing cities. After a few hours we reach the Alps once more. We have seen them on our right hand all the way ; now they sweep round, and, as the Maritime Alps, cut off the coast from the plain. We pierce these mountains by tunnel after tunnel in the midst of romantic scenery, and at length run into the great port of Genoa.

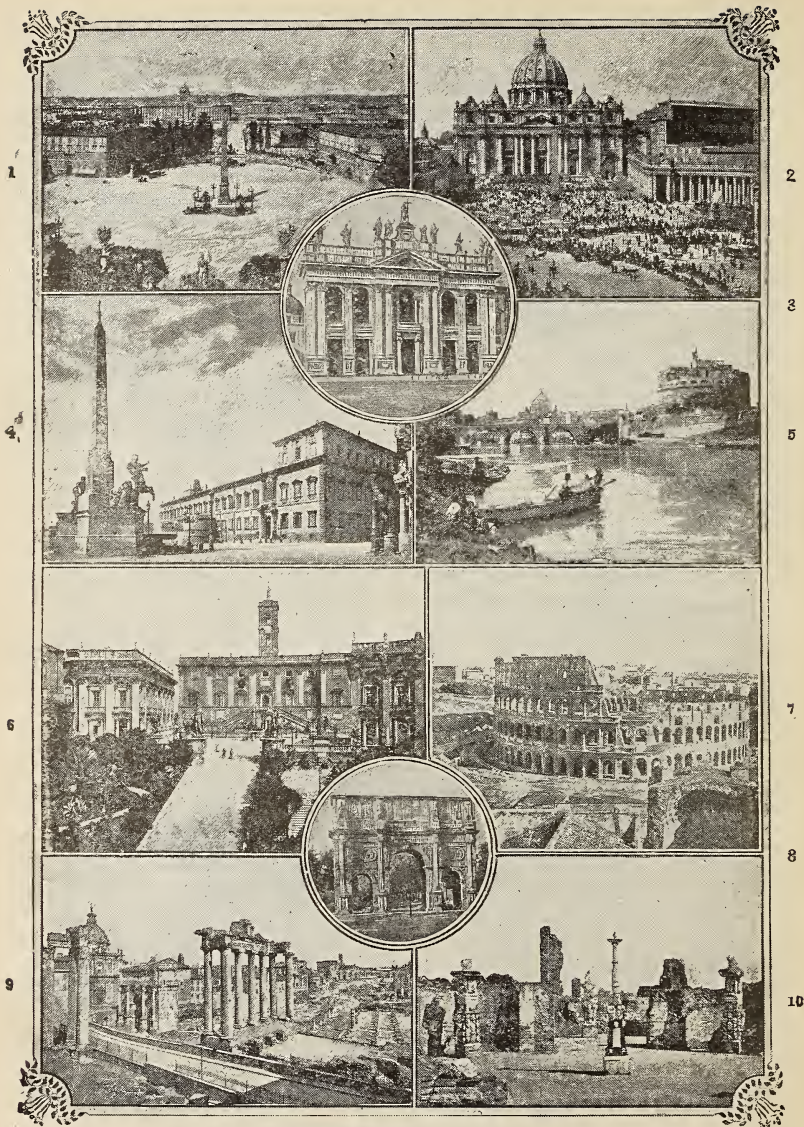
7. Genoa is a city of palaces, but it is also a city of commerce, and second only as a seaport to Naples. The busy harbour is thronged with shipping, and great liners of all nations lie in its docks. From early times the Genoese have been famous sailors, and you will remember that Christopher Columbus was a native of the place. A grand monument to his memory stands in the town. Once Genoa was a rich and powerful republic, and the great

rival of Venice. The Genoese are a race apart ; they are very capable and business-like, but they have not the charm of the other peoples of Italy.

8. From Genoa our train skirts the narrow shore, and on its way to the old city of Pisa runs through many tunnels. As we proceed we have charming glimpses of one of the loveliest coasts in the world. Now we reach Pisa, which is famous all the world over for its baptistery and leaning tower. Pisa stands near the mouth of the Arno, but its harbour is now silted up, and its trade has departed to the important town of Leghorn, which builds some of the great Italian ironclads, and makes coral ornaments in vast numbers. Its exports consist of hides, hemp, marble from the famous quarries of Carrara, olive oil, fruit, wine, soap, and the well-known Leghorn hats.

9. We now continue our journey southwards, and towards evening pause at Civita Vecchia, formerly the port of Rome. It is now a squalid little town, with a bad harbour and a convict prison. After we leave the town we find ourselves crossing a great grassy plain. This is the famous Roman Campagna. It is almost treeless, and is swept by every wind that blows. Though it may appear tame and dull it has a beauty and fascination of its own. Beneath its surface lie the remains of the Etruscans, a strange, gifted people who flourished long before the Romans were heard of. Across the Campagna wander vast herds of cattle and horses and flocks of sheep.

10. Now we see distant towers before us, and expectation rises high. We cross the Tiber by a bridge, and in a few minutes find ourselves within the walls of Rome.



# FAMOUS SCENES IN ROME.

1. The Piazza del Popolo. 2. St. Peter's. 3. St. John Lateran. 4. The Quirinal. 5. St. Peter's and Castle of St. Angelo, from the Tiber. 6. The Capitol, the Palace of the Senate. 7. The Colosseum. 8. Arch of Constantine. 9. The Forum, from the Capitol. 10. House of Domitian, Palace of the Cæsars.



### 34. “THE GRANDEUR THAT WAS ROME.”

1. Rome is the most famous city on earth. It was, as you know, the home of the Romans who, in the day of their greatness, were masters of nearly all the then known world. Rome was the mother city of the vastest empire of ancient days, and into it were poured the wealth and treasures of far-distant nations. The Romans were wonderful alike as conquerors, rulers, statesmen, and builders, and no nation has left so broad and deep a mark upon the world. Rome had its day, and a very glorious day it was; but at length it fell before the fierce heathen tribes of the north, and was splintered into numerous states, which waged fierce and almost constant war with each other.

2. At the beginning of the nineteenth century there were no less than nine separate states in Italy. The chief states were those of the Church, governed by the Pope, the kingdom of Sardinia, and the kingdom of Naples. Part of Lombardy belonged to Austria. This state of affairs did not please the Italians, who strongly desired to bring back the old unity once more. Patriots arose, and though often defeated, were at length able to drive out the Austrians and add Lombardy and other provinces to the kingdom of Sardinia.

3. The patriot Garibaldi then headed a rising in the south; and in a short time, with the exception of Venice and the states of the Church, the whole of Italy was united under King Victor Emmanuel. A few years later Venice was added, and in 1870 the Italian troops took Rome. Thus Italy, “from the Alps to the sea,” became one kingdom under one king.

4. Rome is so full of wonderful sights that a man may spend his life in the city, and only realize at the end of it how much he has left unseen. We must content ourselves with a brief visit, and for this purpose we will divide the city into three distinct parts—first, ancient Rome ; second, the Rome of the Middle Ages, or of the Popes ; and third, modern Rome.

5. To see the ancient city we climb to the Capitoline Hill, one of the seven hills on which Rome was built. Standing on a little platform where the steps descend, we see ancient Rome spread out before us. On our right is the wooded Palatine Hill, whereon in ancient times stood the palace of the Cæsars and other magnificent buildings. Now nothing remains of it but a pile of stones amidst clusters of pine trees. On Palatinus you may still see fragments of the judgment seat before which St. Paul appeared when he appealed to Cæsar and was brought before Nero.

6. Right in front of us is the Forum, which in the days of Rome's greatness was the heart and centre of the city. Formerly the remains which we see were covered up to the depth of thirty feet by the earth which had accumulated in the course of centuries. Now it has been dug away, and we are able to form a good idea of the "grandeur that was Rome." To our left we see the wonderful arch of Severus, covered with carvings representing his victories. To our right stand eight noble columns which are all that remain of the Temple of Saturn.

7. If we descend into the Forum we may walk on the very lava pavement which the great Roman judges, soldiers, and citizens trod, and see the rings which the Roman boys



**Homeward Bound.**

*(From the painting by C. Tiratelli. By permission of Mr. Franz Hanfstaengl.)*

made for their games of marbles two thousand years ago. We may also walk on the Via Sacra along which Roman generals rode in triumph to the Capitol, and examine the house of the Vestal Virgins, the spot where Mark Antony made his famous funeral speech over the dead body of Cæsar, and the site of the gulf into which Marcus Curtius leaped that Rome might be saved. The Forum was less than five acres in extent, but it was crowded with palaces, temples, statues, and shops. There is not an inch of it that does not recall interesting memories to the student of Roman history.

8. We leave the Forum by the Arch of Titus, the conqueror of Jerusalem. Within the arch we see carvings showing us the emperor's triumph. He is seen in his chariot, and behind him is borne the table of the shewbread and the seven-branched candlestick which were brought by him to Rome as trophies. We descend a short road, and on our right hand see the beautiful Arch of Constantine.

9. Immediately in front of us is the Colosseum, that vast circus to which the Romans of old flocked for amusement. What we now see is only a third of the former building.

"A ruin—yet what ruin! from its mass  
Walls, palaces, half cities have been reared."

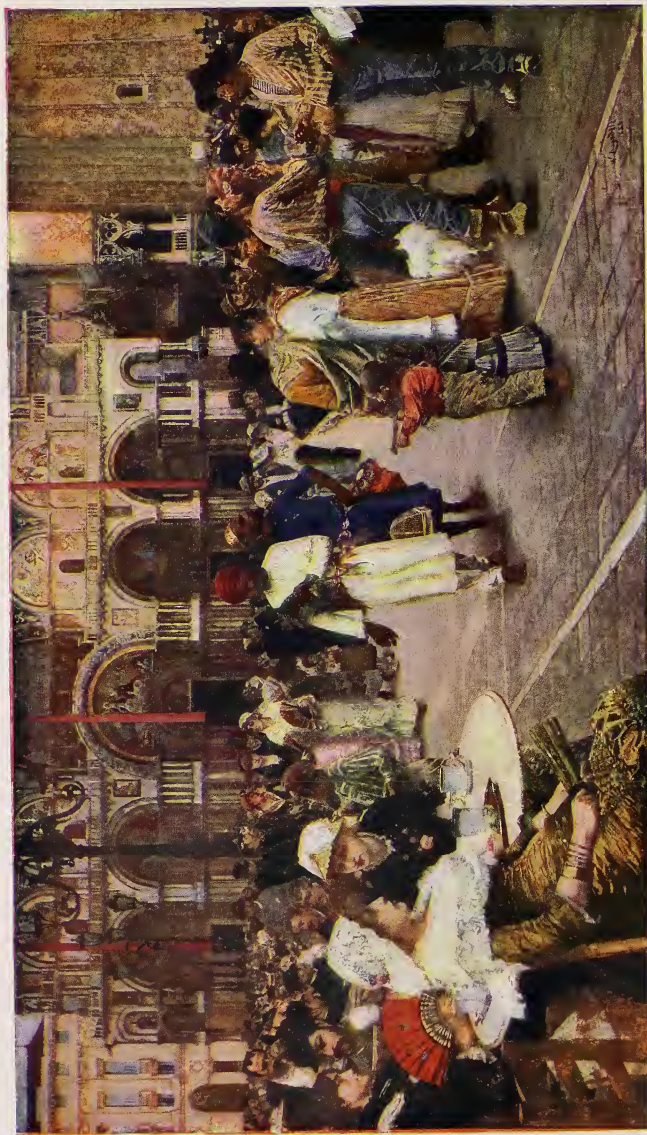
In early days eighty thousand people have sat upon its marble seats, beneath purple awnings, watching with gloat-ing eyes the death combats of men or the dying struggles of Christian martyrs with wild beasts. Beneath and around the arena we may see even now the dens in which the hungry lions were kept, and the rooms where the gladiators or hired fighters stripped for the deadly fray.



10. When the Roman Empire fell to pieces Rome was the capital of Christianity and the seat of the Pope, who gradually became the supreme head of the Christian Church. Great and noble churches were built, and artists were encouraged to adorn them with paintings and carvings of wondrous beauty. The grandest church of all is St. Peter's. It is the vastest church in the world, and one hundred and eighty years were required to complete it. The dome itself is one-ninth of a mile round, and the height of the cross which surmounts it is four hundred and thirty-five feet. Everything within it is of the richest and rarest kind.

11. Rome abounds in magnificent churches; there are some four hundred of them, and most of them contain important works of art and objects of great historic interest. The best known of them is St. John Lateran, which is the real cathedral church of Rome. St. Paul's, outside the walls, is one of the purest and noblest fanes in all the world.

12. The Pope, who is still recognized as an independent sovereign, lives in the Vatican, where he holds royal state, and is guarded by a corps of noblemen. The palace of the Vatican, which adjoins St. Peter's, covers thirteen acres, and besides gardens and private apartments it contains great halls, picture galleries, chapels, libraries, and museums filled with wonderful paintings, ancient books, sculptures, carvings, and jewellery. One of the chapels—the Sistine Chapel—has its roof and walls adorned by the great Michelangelo, who spent twenty months in painting the roof alone. Elsewhere we find the Apollo, the most beautiful statue in the whole world, and a bronze Hercules, one of the most ancient and beautiful of Greek statues.



**On the Piazza of St. Mark, Venice.**  
*(From the picture by W. Logsdail in the Birmingham Art Gallery.)*

13. Before we leave the capital we must look for a moment at modern Rome, a city which is not yet half a century old. The new streets and squares are like those of a French city, but the monuments and statues are not in the best of taste. Rome has no commerce worth the name. Her prosperity depends on tourists and pilgrims, who come from every part of the world to visit the shrines of the apostles and to pay their respects to the Pope. Were the Pope to abandon Rome the city would be in evil plight. Rome is the centre of the Roman Catholic world, and it contains a university, many great training colleges for priests, and numerous monasteries. You cannot walk a hundred yards in Rome without meeting priests, students in their black or red gowns, and barefooted monks or friars.

14. The king lives in the Quirinal, which stands on a hill opposite to the Vatican on the other side of the Tiber. The famous river, which is spanned by a dozen bridges, does not impress us ; it is a rapid, mud-stained stream, and it is still liable to overflow its banks as in the days of old.

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### 35. ITALIAN CITIES.—I.

1. We now branch south towards Naples, the chief seaport of Italy. As our train speeds on we know that we are in the veritable south, for we see semi-tropical plants everywhere. Groves of oranges and lemons, palms, figs, and olives are frequent, and the cactus and the aloe give the country an almost Eastern air.

2. We now approach Naples,\* which is in many ways

\* See coloured picture, page 19.

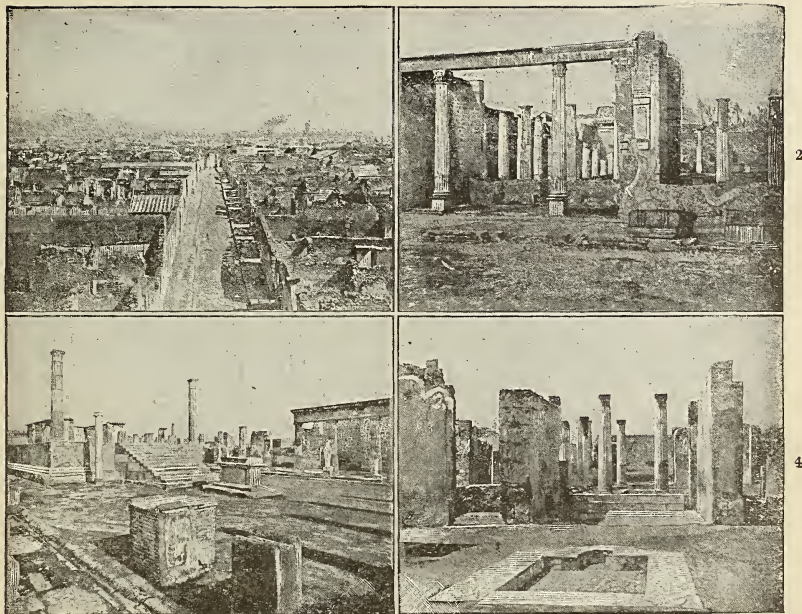
one of the most beautiful cities of Italy. Far away we see the faint wisp of smoke issuing from the cone of Vesuvius, the great volcano. The city lies along the shores of a beautiful bay, which, in the bright sunshine, is dazzlingly blue. As we enter the city it seems very noisy. The streets are cobbled, and traffic is carried on with a continuous roar.

3. Naples has many fine buildings, but it is full, also, of slums, and the people strike us as very dirty. The more, however, that we know of Naples, the more we shall find to admire and like in it. Even the Neapolitans are not nearly so unpleasant as they appear at first sight. We are perhaps shocked to see able-bodied men idling at the street corners, spending the day in smoking and laughing, but these idlers can work as hard as anybody when they are driven to it by hunger or interest.

4. The splendid harbour and port are full of shipping of all nations, and the exports of fruit, wine, and oil are very large. The famous macaroni, which is the staple dish of the Italians, is largely made in Naples. The shipbuilding trade is very flourishing, and in one of the suburbs the Armstrong Company has important works. The university is the largest in Italy, and its students number more than five thousand.

5. Most visitors to Naples spare the time to visit Vesuvius. A mountain railway carries them near to the summit, which is a huge rounded mass of yellow sulphur. The mouth of the crater itself is a vast pot, out of which clouds of steam, black with dust, continually ascend. The most recent eruption was in 1906, when the weight of dust which fell at Naples was sufficient to crush in the roof of a market. There is





VIEWS IN POMPEII AS NOW EXCAVATED.

1. Panoramic View. 2. House of the Faun. 3. Temple of Apollo. 4. House of Pansa.

an observatory about half-way up the mountain, and recently one of the observers has descended into the crater and taken photographs. For hundreds of years the slopes have been renowned for vines which produce a famous wine.

6. On the Bay of Naples, at the foot of Vesuvius, are the buried cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii. These cities, as perhaps you know, were buried in ashes at the great eruption of Vesuvius which took place in A.D. 79. Herculaneum has not yet been properly excavated, but more than two-thirds of Pompeii has been laid bare.

Its streets, market-places, theatres, and shops, as well as its dwelling-houses, are now to be seen as they were when the ashes engulfed them. We can gaze upon articles of food in the process of cooking, on election posters fixed to the walls, and see the casts of men, women, and children who perished as they tried to flee from the doomed city.

7. There are many beautiful places in the neighbourhood of Naples, but none is more beautiful than the island of Capri, which lies in the bay. Here, on a calm day, a narrow opening in the lofty cliffs enables our boat to enter the famous Blue Grotto. The deep clear water sparkles like a huge sapphire, and everything seems to be bathed in an atmosphere of the most brilliant blue.

8. We now embark upon a steamer at Naples and make an eight hours' voyage to Palermo, the capital of Sicily. We discover that the coast of the island of Sicily is very lovely, but we soon notice that the interior is, as a rule, barren and ugly. For many years the Normans were masters of Sicily, and we still find men and women on the island with the fair hair and light complexions of the north.

9. Palermo has several interesting buildings to show us, notably the beautiful Cappella Palatina in the royal palace. Here, and in the cathedral, we see some of the most beautiful mosaics in the world. The trade of the town is mostly in fruits and in wine. Other important cities of the island are Syracuse, Catania, and Messina. In December 1909, an earthquake shook down Messina like a house of cards, and nearly seventy thousand persons perished. As we sail

by the city through the beautiful Strait of Messina, we see scores of houses in ruin, and a new city being built to the east of the old one.

10. Sicily has none of the rich beauty of fertile Italy, and it suffers by having few streams and a low rainfall. In the summer much of the country looks as parched and dry as an African desert. Large sulphur mines form the chief source of wealth.

11. We must not say farewell to Sicily without visiting Mount Etna, the volcano that looks over the sea less than twenty miles from Catania. As we approach it in the early spring, it seems like a perfect cone of dazzling white with a brown smudge at the top, from which a brown vapour lazily issues. The mountain seems to rise directly out of the sea, and its lower slopes are covered with forests.

12. Retracing our steps northwards we reach Rome and set out for Florence, which stands on the Arno, and is known as the "City of Flowers." It is one of the loveliest towns on earth, and viewed from a summer-house in the Boboli Gardens, or from the hillsides, it seems to be a dream-city. Wherever you turn in Florence you see glorious buildings and beautiful statues. On one side of the chief square there is an open arcade, containing some of the finest sculptures in all the world. It is said that there are seven miles of art galleries in Florence. During the season the galleries are thronged with visitors.

13. Florence was the city of Dante, one of the greatest poets of the world. You may still see the old bridge covered with ancient houses near to which Dante first saw Beatrice, the lady who inspired his writings. This old

bridge unites the Uffizi Palace and the Pitti Palace, both of which are crowded with art treasures. In the heart of the city stands the marble cathedral in which Savonarola, the great religious reformer, moved the Florentines to proclaim Jesus Christ as King of their city. He was afterwards hanged and burnt at the stake.

14. Close to the cathedral is Giotto's wonderful bell-tower, and opposite to it is the Baptistery, with magnificent bronze gates showing scenes from the Bible. For a brief time Florence was the capital of United Italy. It has, however, now fallen from its high estate ; it produces nothing artistic worthy of the name, and relies almost entirely on its foreign visitors.

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### 36. ITALIAN CITIES.—II.

1. We leave Florence with reluctance and take the train for Venice. Our route lies right across the Apennines, amidst scenes of great beauty. We climb higher and higher up the mountain sides and pass through many tunnels. Then we descend to the old city of Bologna, with its curious leaning towers, which look as if they were about to topple over. Bologna is a busy city and contains a famous university. In the evening we approach the low shores of the Adriatic Sea. Before us stretches a great lagoon, and on its islands we see the lights of Venice.

2. We cross the lagoon by a long bridge of many arches, and our train pulls up at the station. When we emerge from it we find ourselves on the shores of the Grand Canal, which winds like a silver snake through the city. A



gondola is waiting, and soon we are threading the narrow mysterious canals of the city. We pass under many beautifully carved bridges and between tall houses which rise right out of the water. At night many of the back canals are as silent as the grave, and an eerie feeling comes over us as we glide along to our hotel.

3. There is no city in all the world like Venice. Its



THE RIALTO, VENICE.

grand old founders built their palaces and churches on islands or on piles driven down into the firm subsoil, and knitted them together with bridges. They did this so that they might be secure from the attack of their enemies. In making their city safe, they made it beautiful. Its streets are canals; there is not a horse or a carriage in the whole place; even the "tramways" are little steamboats.

4. The broad Grand Canal, which threads the city for more than two miles, is one long street of palaces. At the seaward end of it we see the Piazza of St. Mark,\* the heart and centre of Venice. It is the great resort of the Venetians, and here, when the day's work is done, all sorts and conditions of men and women meet at the cafés to sip their wine and listen to the music of the band.

5. The Piazza is a huge paved square, surrounded by superb buildings with an arcade which contains some of the most attractive shops in Europe. One end of the Piazza is closed in by St. Mark's Cathedral, which is a copy of the mosque of St. Sophia at Constantinople. The Venetians of old lavished their wealth on St. Mark's, and meant it to be, as it is, the proudest glory of their proud city. Above the porch stand the four great bronze horses which were brought from Constantinople by one of the Doges, or rulers of the city. In front of the cathedral we see hundreds of fat pigeons being fed by the visitors.

6. Facing St. Mark's is the Campanile, or great bell-tower, which fell a few years ago, but has now been completely restored. Next door to St. Mark's is the Doge's Palace, built of coloured marbles, and full of masterpieces of the great Italian painters. Spanning the narrow canal from the Doge's Palace to the dungeons on the other side is the famous "Bridge of Sighs," across which many a prisoner has passed to his doom. All over the city there are picture galleries and churches in which the great works of the Venetian artists are to be found.

7. In Venice the West meets the East, for the old

\* See p. 200.

Venetians were the greatest merchant princes of their day, and the city was the centre from which the products of the East were distributed to the West. Nowadays, glass-making and lace-making are the chief industries of the place. Venice is still a busy port, and liners and tramp steamers are seen at its quays amidst the fishing-boats and barges with their brightly-coloured sails. The glory of Venice, however, has departed, and it now caters chiefly for visitors.

8. Now we recross the lagoon, and turning our faces westwards find ourselves in one of the richest agricultural regions of Europe. Everywhere the country is traversed by canals and ditches which give life and fertility to the fields. We pass fine old cities, and notice huge farms, which yield an abundance of grain, rice, grapes, and fruits of all kinds. We see, too, long lines of mulberry trees, on the leaves of which the silkworms live. Some of the dairy farms are very large and contain the latest inventions. Excellent butter and cheese and eggs are exported to foreign countries, especially to the British Isles.

9. We now reach Milan, the richest city of Italy and, after Naples, the largest in population. In the centre of the town a huge white marble cathedral glistens in the sunshine. Outside it is adorned with statues, "as if a flight of angels had alighted and been struck to stone." Within, a forest of mighty pillars stretches into mysterious gloom. Milan Cathedral is remarkable as being one of the few Italian churches built in the Gothic style. The city is a great centre of manufactures.

10. From the roof of the cathedral we see the sweep

of the snowy Alps, and a short journey will bring us into the midst of them. We are within easy reach of the lovely lakes of Maggiore, Lugano, and Como, set amidst the most exquisite scenery to be found anywhere. If we travel to Maggiore and ascend Monte Mottarone, we are rewarded with superb views. The eye ranges over a wide prospect of snow-clad mountains, between which we catch the gleam of sunlit waters. Below us is the deep blue lake with green hillsides rising from the shores. Fairy-like islands seem to float on its surface, and brightly-coloured houses peep out from almost tropical foliage.

11. Before saying farewell to Italy let us learn something about its present condition. The country is governed on much the same lines as the British Isles, but the people care little for politics, and only about one-third of those who have the vote use it at elections. The towns are not well governed, and education is backward.

12. We already know that North Italy is bounded by two great military nations, and that the peninsula has one of the most extensive seaboard of any European country. These facts compel her to maintain an army and a fleet much larger than she can well afford. Every man of twenty must serve under arms for two years, and is liable to be called out at any time until he has reached the age of thirty-nine. On a war footing the Italian army numbers about two million men. The navy is very efficient, and if we visit Spezia, on the north-west coast, we shall see some of the ironclads. Spezia is the Italian Portsmouth. In its streets we are sure to see many smart bluejackets.

13. As a race, the Italians possess many fine qualities.



They are very thrifty, and every woman and almost every man can cook well. Italians are generally cheerful and good-humoured, and can perform the hardest of bodily toil for a long day under a broiling sun without showing fatigue.



MILAN: THE CATHEDRAL, AND SQUARE WITH MONUMENT TO  
VICTOR EMMANUEL II.

They are sometimes accused of being dishonest and treacherous, but they are no more dishonest and no less faithful than neighbouring peoples. Nor are they as cruel as they are generally supposed to be. Formerly horses and cattle were ill-treated, but a great change for the better is now taking place.

## The Iberian Peninsula.

By George Sandeman.

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### 37. A GENERAL VIEW.

1. Our "grand tour" ends with a survey of the Iberian Peninsula, which contains the countries of Spain and Portugal. We have left this region until the last for a good reason. The Iberian Peninsula, as you already know, is cut off from the rest of Europe, and has more resemblance to Africa than to the continent of which it forms a part. You already know that "Africa begins at the Pyrenees."

2. There are many mountains of Europe higher than the Pyrenees, but few that are wilder and grander. They rise up like a vast wall running from sea to sea. Though a railway enters Spain at each end of the mountains, and several roads cross them, they still form an important barrier between France and the peninsula. Many of the summits rise above the snow-line, but there are few glaciers. The lower slopes are well wooded with olives, vines, and chest-nuts.

3. Cut off by the Pyrenees from the rest of Europe, the Iberian Peninsula is almost a world in itself. In shape it is roughly a square, with sides about five hundred miles long. The coasts are not broken by deep inlets, and in this respect differ greatly from those of North-West Europe. The core of the peninsula occupies three-quarters of its area, and consists of a mass of ancient and much altered rock. This vast block rises high above sea-level, and its surface forms a wide, dry tableland, sloping downwards

towards the west. Little is grown upon this plateau, and the population is very scanty. Parallel rivers cut deeply into the plateau, and form three high ridges which cross the country from west to east.

4. North of this central block we find the Cantabrian Mountains, which are "folded" like those of the Alps and the Pyrenees. South of it is the Sierra Nevada, another system of young mountains formed in the same way. These young mountains of the north and south of Spain have high peaks, deep narrow valleys, and rapid streams, and are in marked contrast with the monotony of the central plateau. In the Sierra Nevada we find Mulhacen, which exceeds eleven thousand feet in height, and is the highest summit of the whole peninsula. Between the Sierra Nevada and the plateau is the plain of Andalusia, which contains the most fertile land in all the country.

5. The rivers of Spain are long, but all are shallow, and as they contain little water, they are scarcely navigable at all. They flow in deep gorges far below the general level of the ground, and hence their waters cannot readily be used for irrigation. The Minho is short, and drains a mountainous district rich in iron ores. The Douro rises far inland in a fertile upper basin, but is of little value as a line of communication. The Tagus, on the other hand, crosses the exposed tableland, and its value lies in its fine estuary, on which stands Lisbon, the capital of Portugal.

6. The Guadiana follows a parallel course to the Tagus for some distance, then turns south to form part of the frontier between Spain and Portugal. The Guadalquivir, or "Great River," alone can be ascended from the sea by ocean-going

ships. Vessels of 1,000 tons can sail up the river as far as Seville. The only other river needing mention is the Ebro, which crosses the plain of Aragon for over four hundred and sixty miles, but is only navigable for a short distance from its mouth. Side by side with it for a considerable distance runs the Imperial Canal, a navigable waterway.

7. The climate of the peninsula is more African than European in character. Large areas of the tableland will grow nothing but shrubs and coarse grass, while along the Mediterranean coast crops cannot be raised without irrigation. The dryness of the country is due to the reckless way in which the forests have been cut down. So scarce is water in some parts of the country that it is sold by auction every morning. In Spain, as in all dry countries, the day is warm, and the night is cold; the summers are hot, and the winters are frigid. A Spanish proverb says, "The air of Madrid will not extinguish a candle, but will put out a man's life."

8. The western part of the peninsula forms the republic of Portugal, which is partly marked off from Spain by the deep gorges of the Minho on the north, and by the river Guadiana on the south-east. For the rest, the boundary is chiefly artificial. Portugal has about the same area as Ireland, while Spain is about six times the size of Ireland.

9. A coasting voyage round the peninsula will enable us to see many of the important towns. We first strike the north Spanish coast at San Sebastian, a beautiful seaside place, much beloved by the Spanish royal family, and much frequented for sea-bathing. As we sail along the coast of North Spain, we are sure to see numerous coal-



laden "tramps" making for Bilbao, where they discharge their coal and fill their holds with iron ore from the mines of the Basque country. The mountains of North Spain are very rich in this mineral, and the mines have been worked since the days of the Romans. Much of the ore is taken to Cardiff, the Tyne, and the Clyde, where it is smelted into pig iron.

10. Steaming westwards along the seaboard, we round Cape Finisterre, or Land's End, and passing Vigo, which exports sardines, begin to follow the Portuguese coast. Soon we arrive at the mouth of the River Douro, where we find Oporto, which means "the port." Oporto is said to give its name to port wine, which is largely exported from the Douro Valley. It is a beautiful city, built on the steep bank of the river, three miles from the sea. There are busy factories in the town, and the shipping trade is large. One of the wine warehouses is said to store more than six million gallons of wine.

11. Following the coast southwards, we round Cape Roca, and find ourselves in the bottle-shaped estuary of the Tagus, which forms one of the finest harbours in the world. On the western side of this estuary, ten miles from the sea, is Lisbon, the capital of Portugal. Its many white buildings stand on the slopes of steep hills which afford superb views, not only of the noble river, but of the surrounding country with its parks and plantations. Lisbon is an ancient city, and the oldest part of the town is still known by its Moorish name, Alfama.

12. Facing the bay is a fine square surrounded by government offices. The cathedral is interesting, and so

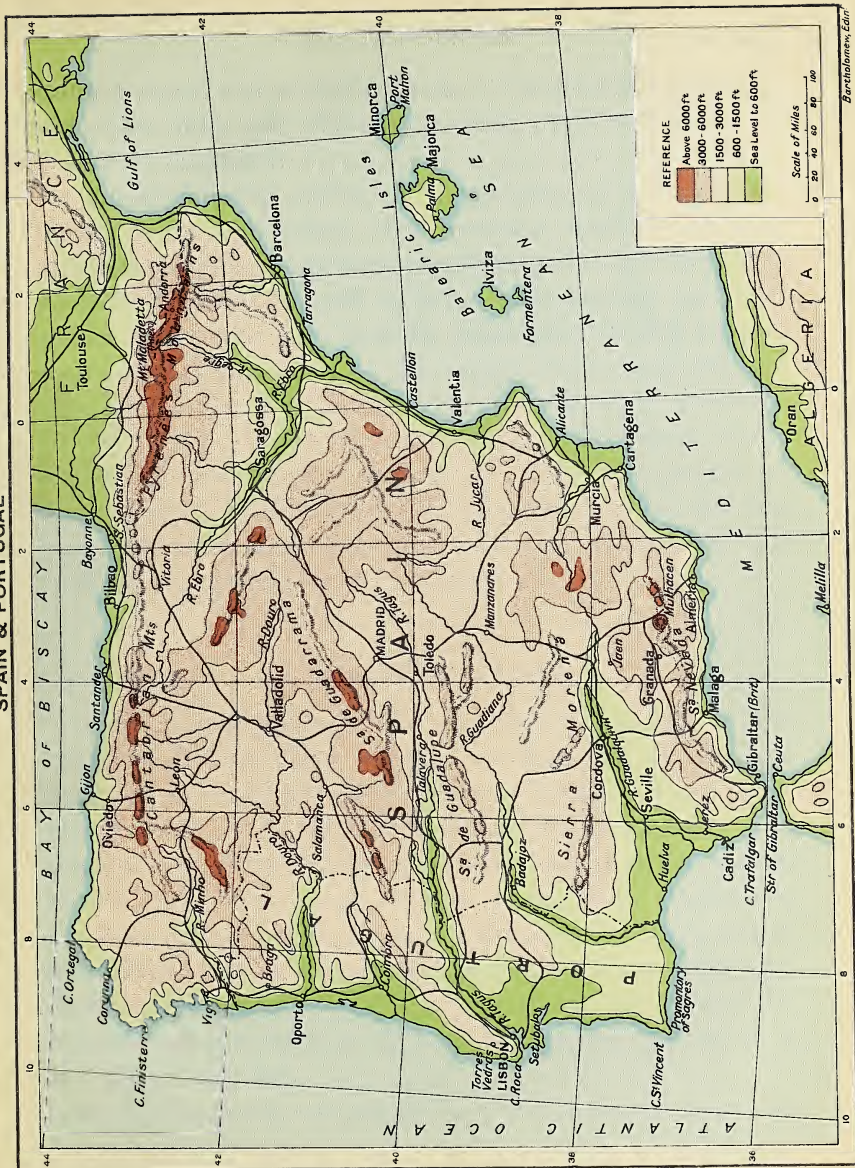
is the church of St. Vincent, which contains the tombs of some of the Portuguese kings. The finest buildings, however, are at Belem, one of the western suburbs. Here we find a noble church, and a monastery containing many royal tombs, but now used as an orphanage and foundling hospital. In the days when Portugal was a great sea power, Lisbon was one of the chief ports of Europe. It still has a good deal of trade, and about half of it is carried in British ships.



LISBON.

13. The most notable event in the history of Lisbon was the earthquake, which entirely destroyed the city, on November 1, 1755. In less than ten minutes the greater part of the city was a heap of ruins. Some thirty or forty thousand persons were killed by the falling buildings, and, to complete the destruction, a mighty wave fifty feet high rushed upon the city, and carried away a long stone quay on which thousands of people had taken refuge. No living

## SPAIN &amp; PORTUGAL







thing escaped that terrible shock. The people were swept away like flies, and ships, torn from their anchors, were dashed to fragments.

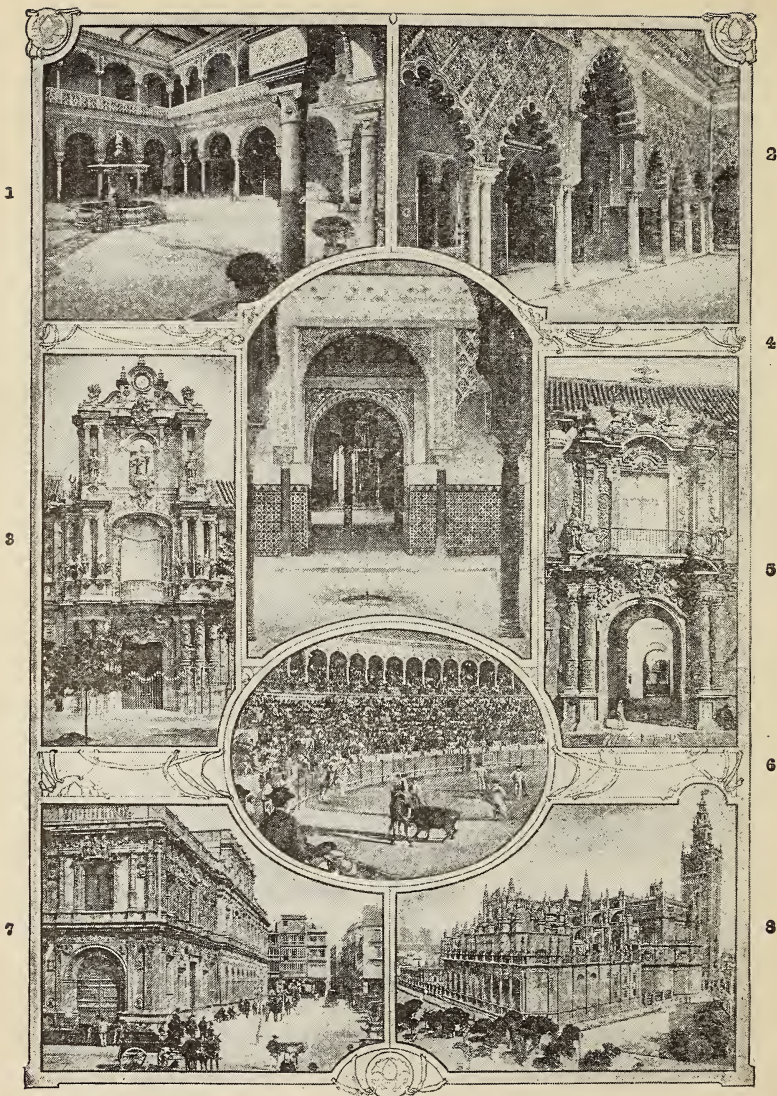
14. Two recent events in the history of Lisbon must detain us for a moment. On February 1908 as the king and queen and their two sons were driving through the streets of Lisbon, a man jumped up behind the carriage and fired at the king, who was mortally wounded. A few seconds later, another man shot at the Crown Prince and inflicted a fatal wound. The second son, Manoel, then succeeded to the throne. The discontent which led to these crimes continued, and in the autumn of 1910 the people of Lisbon, aided by the army and navy, rose against the boy king and drove him from the country. A republic was then set up, and is now fully established.

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### 38. SPANISH CITIES.

1. Rounding Cape St. Vincent, famous for ever in the annals of British naval warfare, we now sail to the east until we reach Spanish territory once more, and put in at Huelva, which is a summer resort for invalids, and a busy place of export for the fruits of Andalusia and the copper of the Rio Tinto mines. These mines were worked by the Phœnicians and Romans, but for centuries were almost untouched, and were only reopened some forty years ago. An immense quantity of ore is now raised and carried for forty-five miles over a railroad to Huelva, where it is shipped to England.

2. We continue our voyage in a south-eastern direction,



# VIEWS IN SEVILLE.

1. "Pilate's House:" courtyard. 2. The Alcazar: the Sultan's Hall. 3. Palace of San Telmo: principal entrance. 4. The Alcazar: looking towards the Ambassadors' Court. 5. Gateway of the Archbishop's Palace. 6. The Bull Ring. 7. The Hôtel de Ville. 8. The Cathedral.

and entering the mouth of the Guadalquivir, sail up the stream to the ancient and beautiful city of Seville. Here we find ourselves in the centre of many industries, and see on the quays, ready for export, oranges, olives, cork, wine, copper, mercury, and lead. The city itself is most attractive. The cathedral is one of the largest churches in the world and contains pictures by Murillo and other Spanish painters. By the side of the cathedral is a famous bell-tower, 300 feet high.

3. Seville has many relics of the Moors, who were formerly masters of Spain. Most of the houses are built in the Moorish style round a central court, which is shaded by an awning in summer. The Alcazar, or old palace of the Moorish kings, still remains. The city is the true home of bull-fighting, and the best bulls are reared on the Andalusian plain.

4. We now return to the open sea, and a short voyage brings us to Cadiz, a city which stands on an island, and is one of the chief ports of Spain, a naval station, and the headquarters of the Spanish-American liners. It was at Cadiz, you will remember, that Francis Drake "singd the King of Spain's beard." It is said that Jerez, a small town near Cadiz, gave its name to sherry, which is still largely exported.

5. Soon after leaving Cadiz we pass Cape Trafalgar, off which Nelson won his great victory, and met his glorious death. Then we enter the Strait of Gibraltar, pass by the Moorish city of Tarifa, the most southerly town of Europe, and arrive at the Rock of Gibraltar, above which we see the Union Jack floating in the breeze. Gibraltar is not only a huge fortress but a free port, and is much used by trading vessels as a coaling station.



6. We are now in Mediterranean waters, and we skirt the shores until we arrive off the coast of Murcia. This province is very dry, but by means of irrigation large crops are raised. Mulberry trees abound, and silk spinning and weaving employ many of the people. All the rich fruits of the south flourish, and in the interior, esparto grass, from which paper and ropes are made, grows wild. On this coast we find the port and mining centre of Cartagena, where the Spaniards have their chief naval station.

7. Our next port of call is Valencia, a city founded by the Romans. It is a beautiful place, lying in the midst of gardens and vineyards made fertile by irrigation. Due east from Valencia are the Balearic Islands, which form a province of Spain. They enjoy a delightful climate and are very fertile. In the old days the people of the islands were famous slingers. It is said that the boys' dinners were hoisted up on poles, and that a boy went hungry unless he could bring down his meal with a well-aimed shot. Minorca, one of these islands, was once a British possession. Port Mahon, on this island, is the chief harbour, and Palma, on Majorca, is the capital.

8. Now we steam northwards past Tarragona, which exports much wine from the Ebro valley, and arrive at Barcelona. We find the city inhabited by Catalans, who are a very energetic race, different in descent and language from all other Spanish peoples. They engage in many industries, especially in cotton manufacture and in ship-building. Barcelona is the second largest and the most important manufacturing city of Spain, and has fine prome-



nades, a university, schools, libraries, theatres, many ancient and beautiful churches, and a Gothic cathedral.

9. Barcelona was an important place even in the time of the Romans, and in it Columbus was received by Ferdinand and Isabella after his discovery of America. The people of Barcelona are far from peaceable in character, and during recent years the city has been disturbed by labour and other riots. The Catalans have nothing in common with their neighbours, and are always ready to revolt from Spain.

10. Now we must see something of the interior. The best way to do this will be to take the train from Barcelona to the fine old city of Saragossa, on the Ebro. Here we pause to see the two cathedrals, and to notice that the town, which was founded by the Romans, now manufactures cloth, silk, woollen goods, leather, and soap. Then we board the train again, and begin to ascend to the treeless and monotonous plateau which was described in our general view of the peninsula.

11. We find many fruitful wheat-fields, but the outlook is very desolate. There are no hedges or fences to divide field from field ; the land and the crops are brown with dust, and the villages are few and far between. Many of the labourers have to walk long distances to the scene of their labour. They are a hard-working, cheerful, and sociable people, who have to make the most of a scanty livelihood.

12. After many miles of railway travel, we reach Madrid, the capital of Spain. It stands high on a dry, dusty tableland ; its situation is very unfortunate, and its

climate one of the worst in Europe. Philip the Second chose the spot because the keen air suited his health. In those days the city was surrounded with forests, which have long since been cut down. Later kings tried in vain to move the capital to Seville.

13. Madrid is at the very centre of the peninsula, and from it railways diverge to all parts of the country, but the work of bringing the lines from the lower and richer levels to the dusty and dreary plateau has been difficult and expensive. A little river, the Manzanares, flows by the city, but it is usually little more than a thread of water. The Spaniards make many jokes about the poor little stream. "We know that it is a river," they say, "because there are bridges across it." They will tell you that the Government ought to sell the bridges, and with the money buy water to put in the river.

14. Madrid is "only the largest village in Spain," but some of the streets and houses are handsome. Most of the inhabitants live in flats, and nobody would live in the city at all were it not the centre of government and the meeting-place of the Cortes, or Parliament, which consists of two houses, known as the Senate and the Congress. The royal palace at Madrid is a magnificent building, and the interior is adorned with precious marbles.

15. About twenty-five miles north-west of Madrid is the great palace of the Escorial. It is a vast square building on a desolate site, and was erected by Philip the Second, who, it is said, vowed during a battle that if his troops won he would build a church in honour of St. Lawrence. The vow was faithfully kept, and the result was the Escorial.

It was built in the shape of a huge gridiron, because the saint, according to an old story, was roasted to death on a gridiron. The Escorial was a monastery for many years, but is now partly used as a college.

16. From Madrid we may travel north to Valladolid, the old capital of Spain. It is celebrated for gold and silver work, textiles, silk, and wine, and is the chief market for the wheat of Old Castile. About forty



IN MADRID.

miles south of Madrid is the venerable city of Toledo. It is seated on a rock which is almost surrounded by the river Tagus. There is an astonishing silence in the steep and narrow streets, which wind about between the tall Moorish houses. Round the lofty cathedral we see many churches and convents. In the old days Toledo was famous for its sword blades and other steel weapons. The blades are still made, but outside the city.

### 39. SPANIARDS AND PORTUGUESE.

1. The map of Spain contains many names which are familiar to readers of British history, for one of our great wars was waged in the Peninsula. While it raged, notable battles were won and great cities were captured. Corunna, one of the fine natural harbours of the north-west, recalls the retreat of Sir John Moore, who lies buried on its grass-grown ramparts. Vitoria, about thirty miles south of Bilbao, is famous for the Duke of Wellington's great victory over the French, and Talavera, on the Tagus, south-east of Madrid, was the scene of one of his hardest fought battles. From Talavera he retired behind the Tagus, where he constructed the great fortified camp of Torres Vedras, near Lisbon.

2. About twelve hundred years ago the north of Africa was in the hands of a clever, powerful, and civilized Mohammedan people known as the Moors. They crossed the narrow strait in thousands, and very rapidly subdued the Christians of the peninsula.

3. The great bulk of the Spanish people settled down quietly under the Moors, but the fiercer Christians of the north and west refused to submit. Constant warfare was carried on with the Moors, and in the course of time the Christian kingdom of Leon was formed. Another band of Christian warriors formed the kingdom of Castile, which was united with that of Leon in the year 1230. Meanwhile a third band of Christians formed the kingdom of Navarre, which grew to be the kingdom of Aragon. In the year 1469 Isabella, the heiress of Castile, married Ferdinand,



son of the King of Aragon, and the two kingdoms were united into the modern kingdom of Spain.

4. Portugal was founded by another band of Christians, and remained independent until the year 1580. In that year the powerful monarch, Philip the Second, managed to secure the crown of Portugal. He forced Portugal to unite with Spain, and the union lasted for sixty years. The Portuguese, however, greatly disliked the union, and at last they rose in rebellion and became independent once more.

5. As the Moors conquered Spain, and held the southern provinces in subjection for seven centuries, you will naturally expect to find many traces of them. The Moors were famous builders, and the ancient city of Granada, in Andalusia, still shows us remains of their ancient glories. On a hill overlooking a wide and fertile plain is the Alhambra, a magnificent palace and fortress set amongst beautiful gardens.

6. Its outer aspect is plain and bare, for it was built to command the city. Within are halls, arcades, and fountains of wonderful beauty, though their gorgeous colouring and delicate ornaments have disappeared. The "Court of the Lions" is said to be the most perfect example of Arabian art in Spain. There are many other halls of singular beauty, and one of them seems to have been taken bodily from the pages of the "Arabian Nights."

7. The people of the Iberian peninsula are of very mixed origin, because of the various races which have lived in it. The early Iberians were followed by the Celts, Phœnicians, Romans, Goths, and Moors, and all these races intermarried with the people already settled on the land. In the

Portuguese there is a large strain of Negro blood, because of the vast number of black slaves formerly brought into the country.

8. We saw in Russia, where the people can easily move about from place to place, a great similarity in the people and their mode of life. In Spain the nature of the country makes communication difficult, and there is no such sameness. It is said that there are nearly five thousand Spanish villages which are not connected with the outer world by any form of road. In such circumstances the people must show great local differences. They are, indeed, almost like different nations, and there does not seem to be much hope of really welding them together. The Spaniard loves his province far more than he loves Spain, and is apt to look upon the people of other provinces as foreigners.

9. In character the Spaniards are simple, grave, and not given to luxury. They are courageous, proud, and very courteous. Even the poorest peasant wears his ragged clothes with an easy dignity, and raises his hat gracefully as he wishes you "God speed." They can be very cruel to those who do them an injury, or differ from them in religion. In these and many other ways the people resemble the Moors. They are not fond of work, but can labour hard when necessary. No doubt much of their sloth is due to the heat, which is so great in the afternoon that everybody lies down for a *siesta*. For an hour or two after midday Spanish cities seem quite deserted.

10. The Portuguese are temperate and kindly, and on the whole are more advanced than their Spanish neigh-

bours. Of all European peoples they are the oldest allies of the British. As you know, they have now set up a republic. The great difficulty in both Spain and Portugal is the dishonesty of the officials.

11. Most Spaniards and Portuguese are Roman Catholics. They are a very religious people, and are devoted to their faith, though in recent years a strong party has shown itself hostile to the Church. Education is compulsory by law in both countries, but the law is not enforced, and more than half the people in both countries cannot read or write.

12. Spain and Portugal are finely situated for carrying on overseas trade, and, as you know, they were formerly great maritime powers. Now, however, they are of little account. In the days of her greatness Spain was the most powerful country of Europe, and held vast possessions in the New World, from which she drew rich stores of gold, jewels, and silver. The last of her important possessions were snatched from her enfeebled hands by the people of the United States during the war of 1898.

13. The sailors of Portugal also won great renown in early days. High on the promontory of Sagres, close to Cape St. Vincent, you may still see the ruins of the castle in which the Portuguese prince, Henry the Navigator, lived. He spent his life in encouraging the mariners of Portugal to push out into the then unknown ocean in order to discover new lands. Thanks to him and to his successors, Portugal became a great sea power. For many years she held the Cape route to India, and she has still much territory in Africa and several colonies in Asia. Her foreign possessions cover about twenty-four times the area of her homeland.

14. The bull-fight is the great national sport of Spain. In nearly every town there is a large circus with tiers of seats, on which thousands of people sit on Sunday afternoons to watch the so-called sport. Everybody dresses for the occasion in his or her best—the men in their brightest cloaks, the women wearing lace head-wraps, or mantillas, and carrying fans of every shape and colour. All are eager for the show, and they discuss the feats of their favourite performers much after the fashion of football enthusiasts in our own country.

15. The bulls, which have been selected from the famous herds of Andalusia or Castile, are garlanded and driven through the barricaded streets to the circus on the day before the fight. When the president has taken his place, the performers, arrayed in splendid costumes, parade the arena. Then the door of the bull's prison is opened, and the animal comes out into the glaring sunlight to be tortured and finally slain before the eyes of a great excited throng. We shall not describe the revolting performance. It ends when the goaded, maddened animal is struck dead by the sword of the daring *matador*. The cruelty of the Spaniards' nature is clearly seen in his love of this debasing sport.

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## Scotland.

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### 40. A GLANCE AT SCOTLAND.—I.

1. Our "grand tour" is over, and we are at home once more, with our knowledge enlarged and our sympathies broadened by travel. We have, however, a few journeys



to make before our survey of Europe is complete. Last year we studied South Britain, or England and Wales. In order to round off our lessons we must see something of the other parts of the United Kingdom—that is, of Scotland and Ireland.

2. We naturally commence with Scotland, which forms the northern and smaller portion of the island of Great Britain. Scotland, unlike Wales and Ireland, was never really conquered by the English, though they made many attempts to subdue it. Until the days of James the Sixth the northern kingdom was quite independent of England. By a happy accident James the Sixth of Scotland became James the First of England, and for the first time the crown of both kingdoms rested on one head.

3. Each country, however, retained its own parliament, its own laws, and its own government. Not till about a hundred years later were the two kingdoms united. In Queen Anne's reign a treaty was made between the Scots and the English, by which both nations agreed to be ruled by one parliament, and to form one kingdom under the name of Great Britain.

4. From this page of history I think you can gather something about the geography of Scotland and the character of the Scottish people. If the great armies of England could not conquer the small population of Scotland, there must have been some good reason why they did not do so. We find that reason, as we should suspect, in the fact that more than half of Scotland consists of highlands almost as rugged as those of Scandinavia and Switzerland. Mountainous lands, as you know, have ever been the

home of freedom, because armies fight at a disadvantage in them, and because they are too poor to provide food for large bands of soldiers on the march.

5. There is only one road by which an army can readily march from England into Scotland. If you examine the map facing page 232 you will notice that a strip of country below six hundred feet in height stretches along the coast of Northumberland, and is continued into Scotland all the way to Edinburgh, the capital. An army following this road would have to cross the river Tweed, which for about sixteen miles forms a natural boundary between England and Scotland.

6. The town of Berwick, at the mouth of the Tweed, was a most important fortress in the old days, because it kept watch and ward over this easy road into Scotland. The town, however, was captured in 1296, and ever since then has belonged to England. You may still see traces of the walls which Edward the First erected. Berwick was for centuries England's gateway into Scotland, just as Calais was its gateway into France.

7. If we stand on the Royal Border Bridge at Berwick and look to the south-west, we shall see the Cheviot Hills, which also form part of the boundary between England and Scotland. In shape the hills are dome-like, and they are covered with heather, bracken, and grass. Cheviot itself, "the glory of the north countree," rises to a height of 2,676 feet.

8. Westwards and northwards of the Cheviots are the southern uplands of Scotland, which stretch right across the country almost from the North Sea to the North

Channel. None of the hills rise to three thousand feet ; all are smooth, grass-covered, and flat-topped, and between them are winding green valleys. These hills give pasture to large numbers of sheep.

9. I think you can now understand why nine out of every ten persons who travelled from England to Scotland in the old days preferred to cross the T w e e d. What is known as the East Coast railway route to Scotland runs along the eastern coastal strip through Ber-



BERWICK-UPON-TWEED, SHOWING PART OF THE  
OLD WALLS.

wick and Dunbar to Edinburgh. Scotland can also be entered from England by the West Coast route. The train climbs, usually by means of two engines, the high, bleak moorland called Shap Fell, which unites the Cumbrian Mountains with the Pennines. At the summit of Shap Fell the train is not far short of a thousand feet above the level of the sea. It then descends by the Eden valley to Carlisle.

10. From Carlisle three railways enter Scotland. The Glasgow and South-Western, the most westerly of the railways, skirts the north shore of the Solway Firth, runs north-west to Dumfries, and continues westwards along the southern foot of the uplands right across the country to the T-shaped peninsula known as the Rhinns of Galloway. It terminates at Stranraer, a small town at the head of Loch Ryan. Fast steamers are waiting to convey passengers to Ireland, which is only thirty-five miles away.

11. Dumfries, the largest town in the south-west of Scotland, stands near the mouth of the Nith, which is a small but interesting river. It rises on the north slope of the southern uplands, and then curving round flows right through the hill district, forming a natural road. Along this valley runs the railway to Kilmarnock and thence to Glasgow.

12. The main line of the Caledonian Railway leaves Carlisle and proceeds northwards through Annandale. It ascends to Beattock, where it is over a thousand feet above sea-level, and then descends into the Clyde valley. At Carstairs the train is divided into two parts: one portion runs north-west to Glasgow, the other portion north-east to Edinburgh.

13. A third railway, the North British, leaves Carlisle, crosses the Cheviots, and threads the Borders, which in the old days were the home of lawless men, who carried on almost continual warfare with their English neighbours. At Hawick, an important tweed-manufacturing town, it crosses the Teviot, which runs north-eastwards through a broad and beautiful vale to join the Tweed. The railway crosses the Tweed later on, and then runs past Galashiels, another tweed-manufacturing town, to Edinburgh.



## SCOTLAND





14. The Tweed is the noblest of all Scottish rivers, and the most famed in song and story. On its banks we find castles and abbeys round which cluster a host of historic memories. "Which of the world's streams," asks George Borrow, "can Tweed envy, with its beauty and renown?" The abbey of Melrose, on the river bank not far from Galashiels, is one of the finest ruins in all Britain; and within a few miles of it is Abbotsford, the home of Sir Walter Scott. To his writings the fame of the Tweed is largely due. He loved the beautiful river, and the ripple of its waters was the last sound which he heard upon earth.

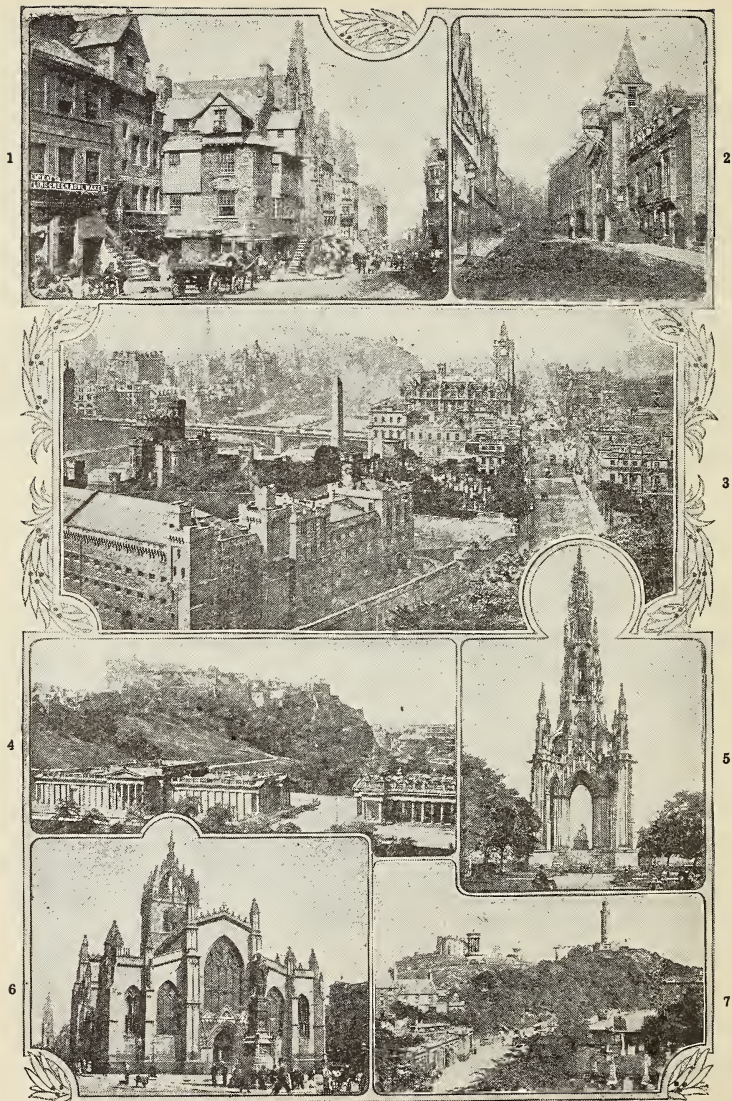
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#### 41. A GLANCE AT SCOTLAND.—II.

1. North of the Southern Uplands, which have been already described, we find what are known as the Central Lowlands. This region is a belt of low-lying country about fifty miles wide, running from north-east to south-west. If we find the little town of Helensburgh, at the mouth of the Clyde, opposite Greenock, and draw a straight line from it to Stonehaven, on the east coast, we shall mark off its northern boundary. Almost everywhere these lowlands are of a rolling character, and are crossed by ranges of hills. Here and there, rising up suddenly from the plain, are craggy heights, often crowned with castles.

2. The most clearly marked part of this lowland region is Strathmore, or the Great Valley, which lies between the Highlands, on the north, and the Sidlaw and Ochil Hills, on the south. It is a hundred miles long, and five to ten





VIEWS IN EDINBURGH.

1. John Knox's House. 2. Canongate Tolbooth. 3. Edinburgh from Calton Hill. 4. Castle and National Gallery. 5. Scott Monument. 6. St. Giles's Church. 7. Calton Hill.



miles broad, and contains some of the richest farming land in Scotland. South of Strathmore is the plain of the Forth and Clyde. The country round about the lower Forth is quite level; it is known as the Carse of Stirling.

3. The plain of the Forth and Clyde is one of the busiest, richest, and most thickly populated parts of Great Britain, and indeed of the whole world. The soil is very fertile, and is skilfully farmed. Beneath the surface are rich stores of coal and iron, which enable great manufactures of woollen and cotton goods, chemicals, and machinery to be carried on. From the beds of shale found in the eastern part of the plain the mineral oil called paraffin is obtained. Almost three-fourths of the population of Scotland is found on this plain, which furnishes most of the country's wealth.

4. The Forth is a small river, but it forms a noble estuary extending inland for more than fifty miles. On both shores are extensive coalfields. Those of Fifeshire, on the north side, send their coal to all the north European countries through several small seaports. On the south side, less than thirty miles from the open sea, is Leith, the port of Edinburgh. A continuous line of streets joins the port to the capital.

5. The nucleus of Edinburgh is the castle rock, one of the craggy heights which have already been mentioned. Sloping from the castle to Holyrood Palace is the ridge or hog's back, on which the city was originally built. The "Old Town" still consists of one long street, known as the "Royal Mile," and branching off from it are narrow lanes called "closes." Some of them are barely ten feet wide, and many of the houses are from six to ten stories high.

6. In olden days Edinburgh was prevented from extending by ravines on the south side of the hog's back, and by a loch on the north side. When the loch was drained and the valleys on either side were bridged, Edinburgh began to spread. What is called the "New Town" lies beyond the drained loch on the north side. The handsomest street of the city, and one of the finest in Europe, is Princes Street, which looks southwards across gardens and green slopes to the castle rock and the irregular skyline of the Old Town. Near the east end of Princes Street stands a graceful monument to the memory of Sir Walter Scott, the "Wizard of the North."

7. As befits a capital, Edinburgh has many historic buildings, including St. Giles's Church and Parliament House, the former seat of the Scottish Parliament, but now converted into law courts. Within the bounds of the city rises Arthur's Seat, a lion-shaped height 822 feet above sea-level. Most of the surrounding hills form golf courses or parks. Edinburgh has few industries beyond printing and brewing; its real industry may be said to be education. Its university is famous all over Europe, and its schools and colleges draw scholars from all parts of the British Empire. From its position on hills overlooking the sea, and because it is a centre of learning, Edinburgh has been called the "Modern Athens."

8. We now take the train from Edinburgh to Glasgow, and in doing so cross Scotland from sea to sea, a distance of only forty miles. For the first part of our journey we run through rich agricultural land, but soon we reach a busy iron and coal mining district, in which towns lie thick

upon the land. In a little more than an hour we are treading the streets of Glasgow, which is three times the size of Edinburgh, and the second city of the British Isles.

9. Glasgow stands on the Clyde, a river which is to Scotland what the Thames is to England. We passed the source of this river, some thirteen miles north of Beattock, during our journey from Carlisle to Edinburgh. While still a small, clear stream, the Clyde passes the town of Lanark, a thriving place with many large cotton mills. Soon after leaving Lanark, however, it flows through the chief mining region of Scotland, and becomes sluggish and foul. Here is found the "blackband" ironstone, in which the ore is mingled with so much coaly matter that it can be smelted with less fuel than other ores require. The villages in this district have grown into large towns, in which blast furnaces and coal pits are the chief features.

10. It is sometimes asked whether the Clyde has made Glasgow or Glasgow has made the Clyde. A hundred years ago small ships could not reach Glasgow except at spring tides. Now the river has been embanked and deepened to such an extent that large ocean-going vessels can sail up to the city quays. Something like ten millions of money have been spent during the last hundred years in making Glasgow a first-class seaport.

11. To pass from Edinburgh to Glasgow is to pass from a quiet, beautiful town to a great commercial and industrial city. The wealth, population, fine streets, university, and modern buildings of Glasgow show us that the active and able Scottish people, though but a small nation, rank among the great races of the world.

12. Glasgow possesses many large cotton factories; it manufactures silk and woollen goods; it has engineering workshops, metal and chemical works, potteries and glass factories. Along the banks of the river, within easy reach of coal and iron, are great shipbuilding yards, which give employment to thousands of men. Here the clang of hammers seems never-ending, and iron ships slowly take



GLASGOW—BROOMIELAW BRIDGE.

shape amidst scaffoldings of timber and iron. The Clyde now builds more iron ships than any other place in the world. Seven miles west by south of Glasgow stands Paisley, famous all the world over for its cotton thread.

13. The Clyde gradually widens into a beautiful firth, and just where the firth begins stands Greenock, now one of the chief ports of the country. Like Glasgow, it has a great trade with North America and South America. Besides its shipbuilding yards it possesses potteries, worsted factories, and sugar refineries.



14. From Gourock, a few miles west of Greenock, we may board a steamer and enjoy a sail amidst the lovely scenery of the Firth of Clyde. A favourite trip is through the narrow straits or "kyles" which separate the island of Bute from the mainland. The island of Bute contains the watering-place of Rothesay, and to its south is the mountainous island of Arran. From the south-east coast of Arran we may look across the waters of the firth towards the pleasant town of Ayr. Two miles south of the town, on the banks of "bonnie Doon," is the village of Alloway, in which Robert Burns, the national poet of Scotland, was born.

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## 42. A GLANCE AT SCOTLAND.—III.

### 1. The poet sings—

"My heart's in the Highlands, my heart is not here;  
My heart's in the Highlands, a-chasing the deer."

Before, however, we proceed to follow our heart's desire, we must visit a few of the important towns which belong to the Lowland region. We return to Edinburgh, and take the train for Dundee. About eight miles from the capital we reach the shores of the Forth, and cross a huge bridge, one and a half miles long, to the opposite shore of Fife.

2. This is the famous Forth Bridge, which consists of three great sections of lattice work like huge scale beams, resting on three piers, and joined together by enormous iron girders. The central pier is founded on a small island, which here divides the Forth into two deep channels. On

the north side, a little to the west of the bridge, is a wide bay, where we see the new naval station of Rosyth.

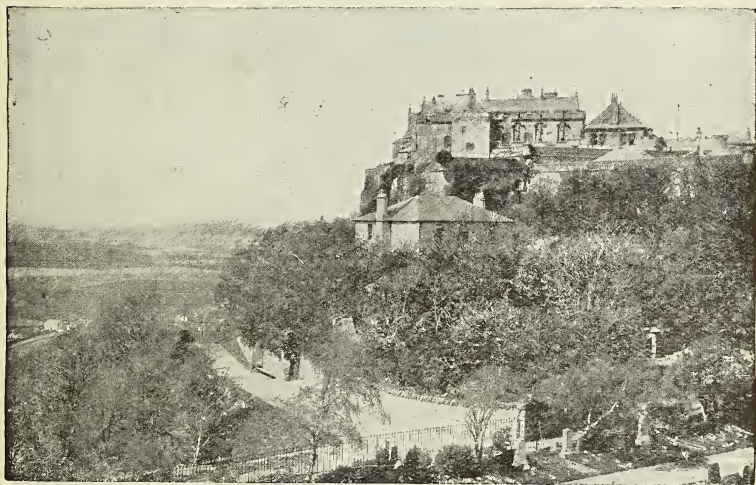
3. Our train now skirts the north shore of the Forth, past several coal ports and summer resorts. One of the kings of Scotland called Fife "a beggar's mantle fringed with gold." By the golden fringe he meant the prosperous towns and fishing villages that skirt the seashore. Kirkcaldy, the largest town in Fife, has important linoleum works. Our train passes through Kirkcaldy, and later on strikes north right across the peninsula, passing near to the ancient university town of St. Andrews. Its golf links are even more famous than its university, which is the oldest in Scotland. Fife contains Loch Leven, an island-studded lake over three miles long. You will remember that Mary Queen of Scots was imprisoned for a year in a castle on one of the islands.

4. A bridge two miles long, built on many piers, carries our train across the Firth of Tay to Dundee, the third largest city of Scotland. It is not only a great seaport, but an important manufacturing town. Jute is spun and woven in its factories in vast quantities, and Dundee ships sail to the polar seas in search of whales and seals.

5. A coast strip of fertile land extends northwards from the Central Lowlands, and here we find numerous fishing towns, some of which are favourite summer resorts. Arbroath and Montrose manufacture flax and jute, while Stonehaven has a woollen industry. The chief town of this part of the coast is Aberdeen, which stands between the mouths of the Dee and the Don. It is sometimes called the "Granite City," because it is almost entirely

built of the cold gray granite quarried in the neighbourhood. Steam trawlers flock to the busy port, and the city contains one of the four Scottish universities.

6. From Dundee we take the train for some twenty miles westwards to Perth, "the gate of the Highlands." Perth has a beautiful situation on the Tay, but though it is an old historic town it has few interesting buildings.



STIRLING CASTLE.

Its chief industry is dyeing. In the old days Perth was very important, because it guarded the main road to the north. When the Highlanders descended upon their Lowland neighbours, they were obliged to pass Perth and proceed south-west to Stirling, where the Forth could be crossed on foot.

7. Stirling is a most interesting old city. Like Edin-

burgh, it possesses a craggy height crowned by a castle. Round about Stirling and on the Lowland road to Edinburgh some of the most important battles of Scottish history were fought. From Stirling Castle we may look down on the field of Bannockburn, where Robert Bruce won the independence of his country in 1314.

8. We must now leave the Lowlands for the Highlands. You already know that all the country north-west of a line drawn from the Firth of Clyde to Stonehaven is occupied by great mountain groups. Some of the grandest scenery in the British Isles is found in the Highlands. Green hills with tracts of heather, bare, scarred mountains (some exceeding four thousand feet in height), beetling crags, mountain torrents, gloomy ravines, and lakes of wondrous beauty, make the Highlands an "enchanted land." There are, however, rich level tracts to be found even in the Highlands. The county of Caithness, in the extreme north-east, though included in the Highlands, is generally level in character.

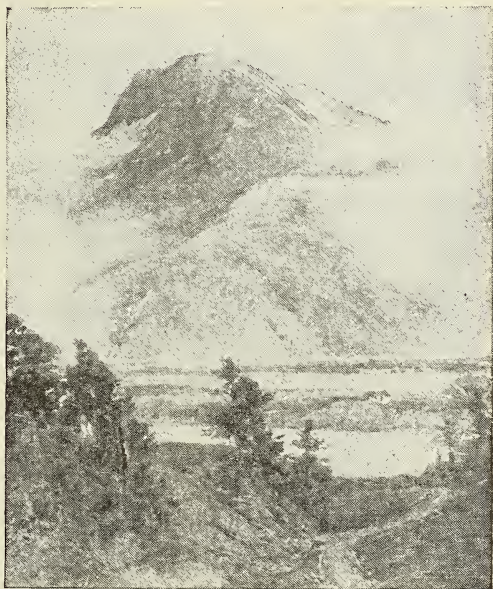
9. The west coast resembles that of Norway. It is composed of hard, ancient rocks, which rise up from the sea in bold cliffs. The river glens have slowly sunk, and in many places the sea runs far into the land, forming lochs which are famous for their beautiful scenery.

10. The whole of the west coast is fringed with a double row of islands, great and small. The Hebrides, as these western isles are called, may be divided into the Inner Hebrides, lying close to the mainland, and the Outer Hebrides. The Inner Hebrides, the largest of which are Skye, Mull, Jura, and Islay, are wonderfully rugged and



picturesque. The large island of Lewis—with Harris, its southern portion—is the most important of the Outer Hebrides. Most of these western isles are covered with boggy, treeless moors, deep lakes, and rugged mountains. They have a damp, chilly climate, and fishing is the chief occupation of the scanty population.

11. One of the most striking features of the Highlands is the long valley known as Glen More, which extends from Loch Linnhe, on the west coast, to the Moray Firth, on the east coast. The glen contains a series of lochs, which have been joined by artificial channels to form the Caledonian



ON THE CALEDONIAN CANAL.

Canal. The beautiful scenery of this canal attracts thousands of tourists every summer. They take boat at Oban, a pretty watering-place on the Firth of Lorne, opposite to the island of Mull, and sail right through the canal to Inverness, “the capital of the Highlands.”

12. At Fort William they find themselves under the

shadow of Ben Nevis, the monarch of Scottish mountains. Ben Nevis is twenty-four miles round and 4,406 feet high. From its summit the mountains around look like a tumbled ocean with great waves moving in all directions.

13. Standing on the summit of Ben Nevis, we observe that Glen More separates the Highlands into two portions. The wild mountainous region to the north is sometimes called the Northern Highlands. On a clear day we can plainly see towards the north Ben Attow and Ben Wyvis, two of the chief peaks in this northern section. Looking north-east, we see Ben Macdhui, the highest peak of the Eastern Grampians; and turning our faces to the south, we catch a glimpse of Ben Lawers, Ben More, and Ben Lomond in the Southern Grampians.

14. We may divide the Northern Highlands into two parts. The north-western portion is very lofty and rugged, while the north-eastern portion is of a more lowland character. Gaelic is spoken in many parts of the Highlands, but in Caithness and the strip of low ground bordering the Moray Firth English is spoken. The people are largely descended from the Scandinavians, who owned the Orkney and Shetland Islands, which lie beyond the Pentland Firth, right down to the year 1468. On the coast of Caithness we find the fishing ports of Wick and Thurso.

15. The most interesting part of the Southern Grampians is the Trossachs, a lovely stretch of country in the valley of the Teith, a tributary of the much-winding Forth. This part of Perthshire is the scene of Sir Walter Scott's famous poem, "The Lady of the Lake." It contains a series of beautiful lakes set amidst romantic woodlands and hills.

16. The largest of the Scottish lakes is Loch Lomond. Towards the northern end it is surrounded by ranges of noble hills, some of a gently-swelling character, while others are wild and rugged. On the eastern side the peak of Ben Lomond rises to a height of more than three thousand feet. The southern end is of a Lowland character, and is studded with wooded islands.

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## Ireland.

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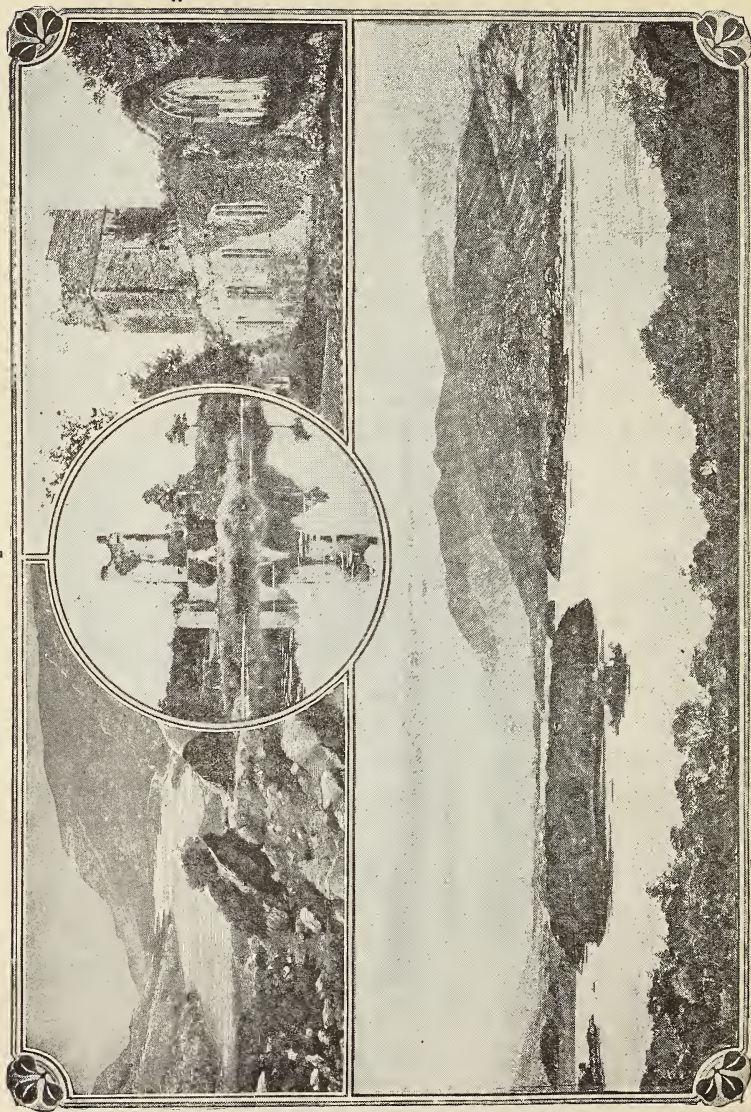
### 43. A GLIMPSE OF IRELAND.

1. We now cross over to the island of Ireland. The British Isles, as you know, are really part of the continent of Europe. The seas which divide Great Britain from the mainland and from Ireland are so shallow that if their floors were raised by the height of the Nelson Column in Trafalgar Square, London, most of what is now water would become dry land. The real boundary of the European continent runs from Norway outside the Shetland Islands and the Outer Hebrides, passes west of the Irish coast, and then proceeds southwards to Spain. Only beyond this line do we find true ocean depths.

2. Ireland, then, lies on the western rim of the European continent. Its eastern shore has not many deep inlets, but its western shore resembles that of Scotland in being deeply indented by the sea. The whole coast has sunk, and the sea has run up a number of long valleys, and has formed long, deep inlets, known as *rias*.

3. Most islands rise to a central point, and are crossed





SCENES IN KILLARNEY.

1. Gap of Dunloe. 2. Ross Castle. 3. Muckross Abbey. (Photos by Lawrence.) 4. The Upper Lake. (Photo by Grey.)



by a backbone of mountains. Not so Ireland. In Great Britain, as we already know, the mountains lie chiefly in the west. In Ireland the uplands flank the coast on all sides. The chief mountain centres are in Wicklow on the east, in Kerry, Cork, and Waterford on the south, in Galway on the west, and in Donegal on the north. The enclosing walls are lower in the east; and this permits easy communication between the interior and the coasts facing Great Britain.

4. Within this rim of mountains is a wide stretch of low ground. The plain, however, is not a dead flat; most of it is rolling country, with ridges here and there. It consists of a floor of limestone, which in past times was covered with coal-bearing rocks. These have long since been worn away, and Ireland has now but few coal mines. This fact alone will tell us that Ireland is an agricultural rather than a manufacturing country. All the manufactures worthy of mention are in Ulster, as the north-eastern part of the country is called, and the coal and iron with which the industries are carried on have to be imported.

5. The limestone floor of Ireland has been worn into hollows, in which we find lakes, or the wet, spongy ground known as bog. In the course of ages the vegetation of these bogs has become peat. The best known of these peat bogs is the Bog of Allen, which lies east of the Shannon, and covers over two thousand acres. Though the bogs are useless for agriculture, their peat is cut and dried for fuel. Its fibres are also now being woven into hosiery, felt hats, wadding, and clothing.

6. The longest river of Ireland, and, indeed, of the British Isles, is the Shannon, which rises in the north-

west of Cavan and enters the Atlantic Ocean by a fine estuary. On its way to the sea it expands into several lakes, which grow larger every year because the water eats away the limestone forming their shores and beds. The Shannon has been made into a navigable stream for small steamers, and is connected with the rivers of the north, east, and south by means of canals. It is possible to reach Dublin, Belfast, and Waterford from the Shannon by means of these canals.

7. The lakes of Ireland are quite unlike those of Scotland. In North Britain we find the lakes in deep, narrow valleys among hard, ancient rocks. In Ireland they lie in broad, flat hollows of the plain, or occur in the valleys of rivers. Among the mountains of the south-west, however, we find lakes which have a Scottish appearance. The Lakes of Killarney are overlooked by a lofty range called Macgillicuddy's Reeks. There are few lakes in the world to compare with those of Killarney. They are three in number—the Upper, the Middle, and the Lower—and they are all united. The lakes are studded with delightful islands, and around them are purple mountains beautifully clothed with woods.

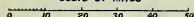
8. A wild mountain region lies in the western part of Galway, and is known as Connemara. Some parts of this district are covered with grass, while others are barren and desolate. One of the finest mountain groups in the British Isles is that of Twelve Pins, sometimes called "The Pride of Connemara." These peaks stand together, and cover about forty square miles. A chain of beautiful lakes lies at their feet.

# IRELAND

## REFERENCE



Scale of Miles



Canals

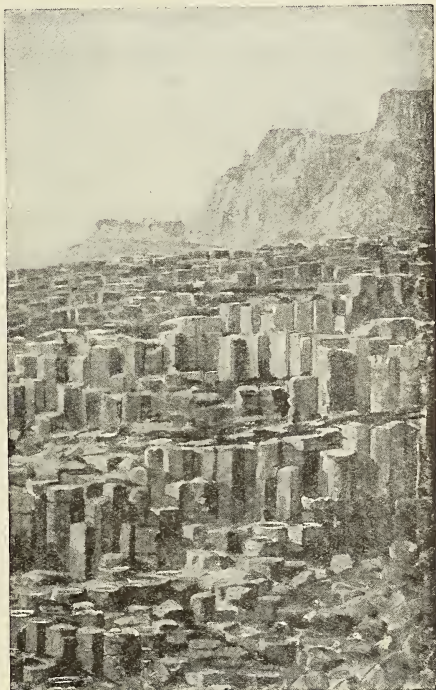






9. The highlands of Donegal are composed of the oldest and hardest rocks in the country. Here we find lofty mountain chains with rounded summits, beautiful glens, gleaming loughs, and some of the finest coast scenery in the world. The sea cliffs of Slieve League plunge sheer down for almost two thousand feet into the dark waters of Donegal Bay.

10. The rocks in the north-eastern part of Ireland show us that long ages ago volcanoes must have been active. The county of Antrim is covered with basalt a hundred feet thick. This volcanic rock ends in bold cliffs, which form lofty headlands. Fair Head, for example, is built up of great columns of basalt, and farther west we find the Giant's Causeway, which



GIANT'S CAUSEWAY.

is a sort of pier jutting out into the sea for nearly two hundred and fifty yards. This pier is formed by the tops of some forty thousand six-sided basaltic columns packed closely together, and each complete in itself. On the islet

of Staffa, off the west coast of Scotland, we find even more wonderful basaltic cliffs, and a grand cave with a sea floor, and basaltic columns all around.

11. Ireland is often called the "Emerald Isle," because at all seasons of the year its fields are a vivid green. The westerly winds blowing off the Atlantic bring much rain, and this not only makes the grass grow well, but gives the island a mild climate. The winter is not so severe as in Great Britain, nor is the summer so hot. The heavy rainfall prevents Ireland from growing much wheat, which, as you know, needs a dry climate and plenty of sun to ripen it.

12. With little coal and scarcely any minerals, Ireland has little chance of being a great manufacturing country. Her people are chiefly engaged in grazing cattle and in tilling the ground. Potatoes, which form the staple food of the peasants, are largely grown, and so are oats and barley, as well as flax in the north. Tobacco is now being tried, and may become an important industry in the future. Cattle-breeding, however, is the chief industry, and the pig in many homes is the "gentleman that pays the rint." The fisheries also are very productive.

13. Ireland is a land of small farmers living on their own farms. In the year 1885 an Act of Parliament was passed which enabled tenants to raise loans with which to buy their farms from their landlords. At the present time more than one-third of the agricultural land of Ireland is owned by the farmers. For many years Ireland has been a poor, despairing country; it is now beginning to prosper. In some parts of the country the farmers join together and

support creameries, in which excellent butter and cheese are made. They have also formed societies for selling their produce, and for buying farm machinery direct from the manufacturers. In spite of all this, many of the people in the west are still wretchedly poor.

14. Ireland produces more food than she needs to feed her people, and this surplus she exports to England and Scotland, which need more food than they can raise. The Emerald Isle is fortunate in having close at hand a great market for her butter, cheese, bacon, eggs, hay, and cattle. As her chief trade is with Great Britain, you will naturally look for her chief towns on the coast facing Great Britain. Of her six largest towns, two are on the east coast, one is on the north coast, and two are on the south coast. Five out of the six are thus within easy reach of British shores.

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#### 44. IRISH PROVINCES AND TOWNS.

1. Ireland is divided into four provinces—Ulster in the north, Munster in the south, Leinster in the east, and Connaught in the west. Ulster consists of the basalt plateau of Antrim, the Mourne Mountains, the highlands of Donegal, and a country of green rounded hills in the south. It is well supplied with rivers and lakes. Lough Neagh is the largest lake, not only in Ireland, but in the British Isles. Upper and Lower Lough Erne are island-studded lakes of great beauty.

2. Ulster is the seat of the chief Irish manufactures. Many of the inhabitants in the eastern region are descended from Scottish and English settlers who emigrated to Ireland in the days of Elizabeth and James the First. These Ulster

men are active and enterprising, and are mainly Protestants. The rest of the Irish people are either Celts or the descendants of a still older race, and they are chiefly Roman Catholics.

3. The main occupation in the west of Ulster is cattle-rearing, but in the drier east agriculture is carried on, and much flax is grown. Everywhere in Antrim one sees fields dotted with the small bright blue flowers of the flax plant, which will grow nowhere else in the British Isles. The home crop, however, is not sufficient to supply the Ulster mills, and much flax is imported from Germany, Belgium, Holland, and France.

4. The manufacture of linen is one of the chief industries of Belfast, and it also gives employment to the people of neighbouring towns. It is said that the Belfast linen district spins enough linen yarn every year to make a three-ply cord which would extend from the earth to the sun and back again. Turned into cloth, the yarn would form a linen path three feet wide all round the earth at the equator. Nearly seventy thousand persons are engaged in this industry. Travellers through Ulster constantly pass grass fields covered with long strips of linen, bleaching to snowy whiteness in the open air.

5. Look at the position of Belfast. It stands at the head of a fine lough, with a rich agricultural country behind it, and is within easy reach of Glasgow and Liverpool. We should naturally assume that it would be a busy port, but we should not imagine it to be one of the chief shipbuilding centres of the world. The Clyde shipbuilding is due to the coal and iron found near it, but Belfast must import its coal and iron from Great Britain. Nevertheless,

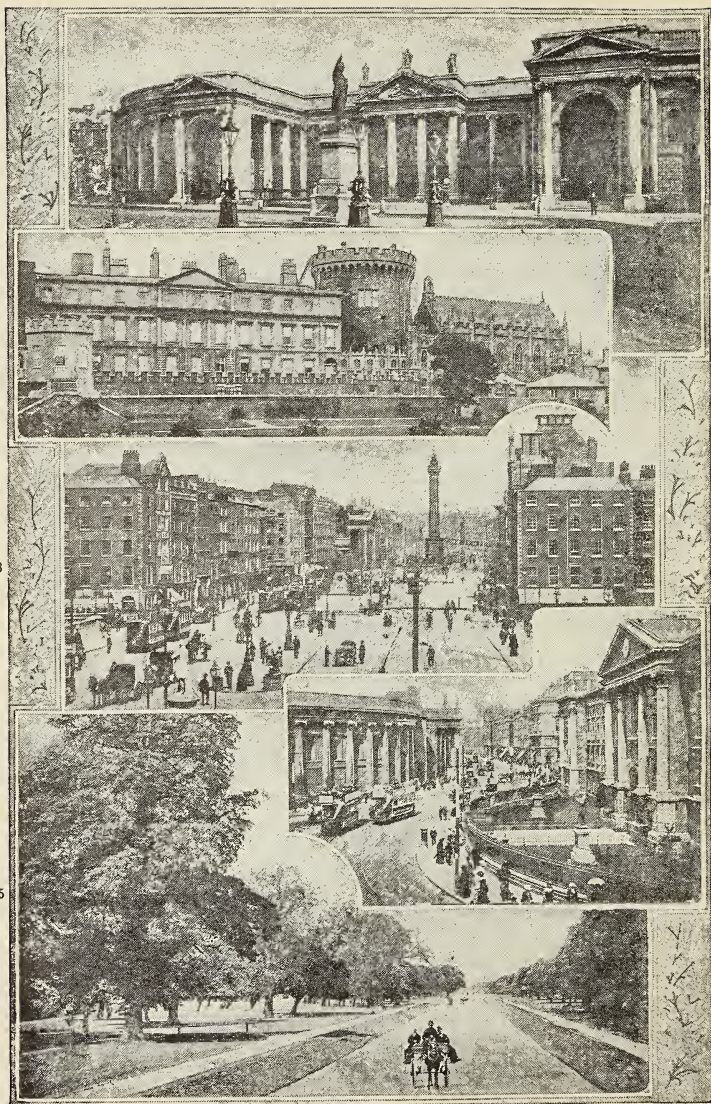


thanks to the enterprise of Messrs. Harland and Wolff of Queen's Island, Belfast has a great and flourishing ship-building industry. Some of the largest vessels ever built—including the *Titanic*, which struck an iceberg and sank on her maiden voyage early in the year 1912—have come from the Belfast yards.

6. A famous historical town of Ulster is Londonderry, which stands on the river Foyle where it begins to spread out into Lough Foyle. Its old name was Derry, but when it was granted to certain London merchants who rebuilt and fortified it, the name was changed to Londonderry. The old city is famous for its long siege, about which you may read in "Highroads of History," Book VI. Now it has a linen industry, and builds ships. Tenders sail down Lough Foyle to Moville to meet the Atlantic liners which ply between Glasgow and the ports of Canada and the United States.

7. Leinster extends from the south-east corner of Ireland northwards to Carlingford Lough. The north is chiefly a grazing country, and the cattle which are fattened on its pastures are exported, along with farm produce of all sorts, from Drogheda, near the mouth of the Boyne, and from Dundalk, farther north. The chief town of Leinster is Dublin, the capital of Ireland.

8. Dublin stands on the Liffey, and owes its importance to its position. Ireland, as we have seen, consists chiefly of a great central plain, and Dublin stands at the spot, opposite to England and Wales, from which this plain can be commanded. As the map shows, Dublin is the centre from which railways and canals have been made to different parts of the country. It is connected with all the chief



# VIEWS IN DUBLIN.

1. Bank of Ireland. 2. Dublin Castle. 3. Sackville Street. 4. Trinity College. 5. Phoenix Park.

towns, and is the great collecting and distributing centre of the traffic between England and Ireland.

9. Many of the public buildings of Dublin are very fine. Perhaps the handsomest of them is the Bank of Ireland, which stands in College Green, and was formerly the Irish House of Parliament. Opposite to the bank is Trinity College, the University of Dublin. At its gates you may see the statue of Oliver Goldsmith the poet, and of Edmund Burke the orator. These great men are but two out of the many famous Irishmen who received their education at Trinity College. The new National University has also its headquarters in Dublin. In Dublin Castle the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland resides.

10. Dublin not only exports much agricultural produce, but has important breweries and distilleries which produce much ale, stout, and whisky for export. It also manufactures Irish poplin, which consists of a "warp" of silk and a "weft" of worsted. The only other town of Leinster which need be mentioned is Wexford, at the mouth of the Slaney. Steamers now run from Rosslare, the out-port of Wexford, to Fishguard in South Wales, a distance of fifty-five miles. This is the shortest route between Ireland and South Britain.

11. Munster lies to the south-west of Leinster. Its coast-line is much indented, and its scenery is very beautiful. Warm, moist winds blow across it, and make its vegetation very rich. The chief town of Munster and the third city of Ireland is Cork, which stands at the head of a fine natural harbour. On Great Island, in the harbour, stands Queenstown, at which Atlantic liners call to pick up



mails and passengers for America. Vessels of 1,000 tons can come up to the Cork bridges, and much butter, hides, live stock, poultry, eggs, whisky, and porter are exported.

12. Two other seaports of Munster must be mentioned. Waterford is a thriving place on a fine haven, into which the rivers Barrow and Suir discharge their waters. Much of its trade is with Bristol. Limerick, which stands at the head of the Shannon estuary, some fifty-five miles north of Cork, is the fourth seaport of Ireland. It is a historic town that still remembers the days of its famous siege in 1689. Limerick has extensive quays, and its trade is very similar to that of other Irish seaports.

13. Connaught, the fourth of the Irish provinces, lies to the west of the Shannon, fronting the Atlantic. It is a region of black bogs and granite mountains, of lakes and streams, and is the least fertile and the most backward of all the provinces. In some parts of the province, known as "congested districts," the people are assisted by a Government Board, which increases the size of their small farms, shows them how to farm and breed cattle better, and sets up such industries as fishing, spinning, and weaving.

14. The west coast of Ireland has many noble harbours, but little or no use is made of them. They look out over the broad Atlantic, and the nearest land to the west is Greenland, nearly two thousand miles away. The west of Ireland has nothing to export to America except emigrants. The only ports worthy of mention are Galway and Sligo, and they are chiefly fishing centres.



# Poetry for Recitation.

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## I. STANZAS FROM "CHILDE HAROLD'S PILGRIMAGE."

*[This poem, which describes scenes in Spain, Portugal, Greece, Italy, and Switzerland, was the outcome of Lord Byron's "grand tour." The poem became very popular, because it painted living pictures of many scenes which have a deep human interest to students of ancient and modern history. The poem, as a whole, is too difficult for you to understand now, but you will read it all with great pleasure in years to come.]*

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### CINTRA.\*

- I. On, on the vessel flies, the land is gone,  
And winds are rude in Biscay's sleepless bay.  
Four days are sped, but with the fifth, anon,  
New shores descried make every bosom gay ;  
And Cintra's mountain greets them on their way,  
And Tagus dashing onward to the deep,  
His fabled golden tribute † bent to pay ;  
And soon on board the Lusian ‡ pilots leap,  
And steer 'twixt fertile shores where yet few rustics reap.

\* Some 17 miles west-north-west of Lisbon. Here the convention was signed by which the French agreed to leave Portugal.

† Tagus was celebrated in ancient times for its gold sand.

‡ The old name of Portugal was Lusitania ; hence Lusian means Portuguese.

2. The horrid crags, by toppling convent crowned,  
 The cork-trees hoar that clothe the shaggy steep,  
 The mountain-moss by scorching skies imbrowned  
 The sunken glen, whose sunless shrubs must weep,  
 The tender azure of the unruffled deep,  
 The orange tints that gild the greenest bough,  
 The torrents that from cliff to valley leap,  
 The vine on high, the willow branch below,  
 Mixed in one mighty scene, with varied beauty glow.

---

### SPAIN.

1. More bleak to view the hills at length recede,  
 And, less luxuriant, smoother vales extend ;  
 Immense horizon-bounded plains succeed !  
 Far as the eye discerns, withouten end,  
 Spain's realms appear, whereon her shepherds tend  
 Flocks whose rich fleece right well the trader knows.  
 Now must the pastor's \* arm his lambs defend ;  
 For Spain is compassed by unyielding foes,  
 And all must shield their all, or share subjection's woes.†
2. But ere the mingling bounds have far been passed,  
 Dark Guadiana rolls his power along  
 In sullen billows, murmuring and vast,  
 So noted ancient roundelays among.  
 Whilom upon his banks did legions throng  
 Of Moor and Knight, in mailèd splendour drest :

\* Shepherd's.

† Written in 1812, during the Peninsular War, which Britain fought to save Spain and Portugal from being subdued by Napoleon.

Here ceased the swift their race, here sunk the strong ;  
 The Paynim \* turban and the Christian crest  
 Mixed on the bleeding stream, by floating hosts oppressed.

---

### THE STRAIT OF GIBRALTAR.

Through Calpe's † straits survey the steepy shore ;  
 Europe and Afric on each other gaze !  
 Lands of the dark-eyed Maid and dusky Moor  
 Alike beheld beneath pale Hecate's ‡ blaze :  
 How softly on the Spanish shore she plays,  
 Disclosing rock, and slope, and forest brown,  
 Distinct, though darkening with her waning phase ; §  
 But Mauritania's || grand shadows frown,  
 From mountain cliff to coast descending sombre down.

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### ALBANIA.

1. Morn dawns, and with it stern Albania's hills,  
 Dark Suli's ¶ rocks, and Pindus' \*\* inland peak,  
 Robed half in mist, bedewed with snowy rills,  
 Arrayed in many a dun and purple streak,  
 Arise ; and, as the clouds along them break,

\* Heathen.

† Ancient name for the Rock of Gibraltar, one of the Pillars of Hercules.

‡ Here means the moon.

§ Appearance. (Note the phrase, "phases of the moon.")

|| Old name for the north part of Morocco and the west part of Algeria.

¶ Mountainous district in Albania.

\*\* Range of mountains in Greece, extending north and south, and dividing Greece as far as the Gulf of Corinth into two parts. The highest peaks approach nine thousand feet.

Disclose the dwelling of the mountaineer :  
 Here roams the wolf, the eagle whets his beak,  
 Birds, beasts of prey, and wilder men appear,  
 And gathering storms around convulse the closing year.

2. Fierce are Albania's children, yet they lack  
 Not virtues, were those virtues more mature.  
 Where is the foe that ever saw their back ?  
 Who can so well the toil of war endure ?  
 Their native fastnesses not more secure  
 Than they in doubtful time of troublous need ;  
 Their wrath how deadly ! but their friendship sure,  
 Where Gratitude or Valour bids them bleed,  
 Unshaken rushing on where'er their chief may lead.

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### GREECE.

1. Fair Greece ! sad relic of departed worth !  
 Immortal, though no more ; though fallen, great !  
 Who now shall lead thy scattered children forth,  
 And long-accustomed bondage uncreate ? \*  
 Not such thy sons who whilom did await,  
 The hopeless warriors of a willing doom,  
 In bleak Thermopylæ's† sepulchral strait.‡  
 Oh ! who that gallant spirit shall resume,  
 Leap from Eurotas'§ banks, and call thee from the tomb ?

\* This was written when Greece was subject to Turkey. Greece did not become an independent kingdom until 1830.

† See p. 188.

‡ In this famous pass a valiant band of Spartans, unable to withstand the Persian host of Xerxes, perished to a man.

§ The town of Sparta stood on the banks of the Eurotas, a river of Greece, now called Iri.



2. Yet are thy skies as blue, thy crags as wild ;  
 Sweet are thy groves, and verdant are thy fields,  
 Thine olive ripe as when Minerva\* smiled,  
 And still his honeyed wealth Hymettus† yields ;  
 There the blithe bee his fragrant fortress builds,  
 The free-born wanderer of thy mountain air ;  
 Apollo‡ still thy long, long summer gilds,  
 Still in his beam Mendeli's§ marbles glare ;  
 Art, glory, freedom fail, but Nature still is fair.

3. Yet to the remnants of thy splendour past  
 Shall pilgrims pensive, but unwearied, throng ;  
 Long shall the voyager with th' Ionian || blast  
 Hail the bright clime of battle and of song ;  
 Long shall thine annals ¶ and immortal tongue  
 Fill with thy fame the youth of many a shore :  
 Boast of the aged ; lesson of the young !  
 Which sages venerate and bards adore,  
 As Pallas\*\* and the Muse †† unveil their awful lore.

\* The Roman goddess of wisdom, of the arts, handicrafts, and sciences, and of war.

† A mountain about five miles east of Athens, famous for honey and marble.

‡ The Greek light or sun god.

§ Another name for Pentelicus, a mountain situated ten miles north-east of Athens, which is renowned for its beautiful marble.

|| That part of the Mediterranean Sea which lies between Sicily and Greece is known as the Ionian Sea.

¶ Records of history.

\*\* Another name for Athene, the Greek goddess of wisdom and war. To the Romans she was known as Minerva.

†† The ancient Greeks recognized nine muses who presided over history, lyric poetry, comedy and other merry verse, tragedy, choral dance and song, love poetry, sacred hymns, astronomy, and epic poetry. In this passage the reference is to the muse of history.

## THE RHINE.

1. The castled crag of Drachenfels\*  
Frowns o'er the wide and winding Rhine,  
Whose breast of waters broadly swells  
Between the banks which bear the vine,  
And hills all rich with blossomed trees,  
And fields which promise corn and wine,  
And scattered cities crowning these,  
Whose far white walls along them shine,  
Have strewed a scene which I should see  
With double joy wert *thou* with me.
  
2. And peasant girls, with deep blue eyes,  
And hands which offer early flowers,  
Walk smiling o'er this paradise ;  
Above, the frequent feudal towers  
Through green leaves lift their walls of gray ;  
And many a rock which steeply lowers,  
And noble arch in proud decay,  
Look o'er this vale of vintage bowers ;  
But one thing want these banks of Rhine—  
Thy gentle hand to clasp in mine !

---

  
ITALY.

Italia, too, Italia ! looking on thee,  
Full flashes on the soul the light of ages,

\* A hill, 1,050 feet high, on the right bank of the Rhine, seven miles south-east of Bonn. It is crowned by a ruined castle.

Since the fierce Carthaginian\* almost won thee,  
 To the last halo of the chiefs and sages  
 Who glorify thy consecrated pages ;  
 Thou wert the throne and grave of empires ; still,  
 The fount at which the panting mind assuages  
 Her thirst of knowlege, quaffing there her fill,  
 Flows from the eternal source of Rome's imperial hill.

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### VENICE.

1. I stood in Venice on the Bridge of Sighs,†  
 A palace and a prison on each hand ;  
 I saw from out the wave her structures rise  
 As from the stroke of the enchanter's wand .  
 A thousand years their cloudy wings expand  
 Around me, and a dying Glory smiles  
 O'er the far times when many a subject land  
 Looked to the Winged Lion's ‡ marble piles,  
 When Venice sate in state, throned on her hundred isles.

2. She looks a sea Cybele,§ fresh from ocean,  
 Rising with her tiara || of proud towers  
 At airy distance, with majestic motion,

\* Carthage, a famous city of the Phœnicians, was situated a few miles east of the present city of Tunis, in North Africa. At one time the empire of Carthage surrounded nearly the whole of the western Mediterranean. Its decline dates from the time when the Carthaginians attempted to subdue the Romans. After three wars, in which Hannibal and other generals took part, Carthage was subdued, and her territory became the Roman province of Africa.

† See page 208.

‡ The badge of Venice is a winged lion holding an open book.

§ The Greek earth-goddess.

|| An ornamental headdress, usually of gold studded with gems.

A ruler of the waters and their powers.  
 And such she was: her daughters had their dowers  
 From spoils of nations, and the exhaustless East  
 Poured in her lap all gems in sparkling showers;  
 In purple was she robed, and of her feast  
 Monarchs partook, and deemed their dignity increased.

3. But unto us she hath a spell beyond  
 Her name in story, and her long array  
 Of mighty shadows, whose dim forms despond  
 Above the dogeless\* city's vanished sway;  
 Ours is a trophy which will not decay  
 With the Rialto,† Shylock ‡ and the Moor,§  
 And Pierre,|| cannot be swept or worn away—  
 The keystones of the arch! though all were o'er,  
 For us repeopled were the solitary shore.

---

## R O M E.

1. O Rome! my country! city of the soul!  
 The orphans of the heart must turn to thee,  
 Lone mother of dead empires, and control  
 In their shut breasts their petty misery.  
 What are our woes and sufferance? Come and see  
 The cypress, hear the owl, and plod your way

\* The chief magistrate of Venice and of Genoa was formerly called the Doge.

† See page 207.

‡ The name of the Jewish money-lender in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*.

§ *Othello, the Moor of Venice*, is the title of one of Shakespeare's plays.

|| In Otway's play, *Venice Preserved*, Pierre is the name of a bold, outspoken man who heads a conspiracy to murder the senators of Venice. The play is now almost forgotten, though it was very popular in Byron's time.



O'er steps of broken thrones and temples, ye  
 Whose agonies are evils of a day—  
 A world is at our feet as fragile as our clay.

2. The Goth, the Christian, Time, War, Flood, and Fire  
 Have dealt upon the seven-hilled city's pride;  
 She saw her glories star by star expire,  
 And up the steep barbarian \* monarchs ride,  
 Where the car climbed the Capitol; † far and wide  
 Temple and tower went down, nor left a site.  
 Chaos of ruins! who shall trace the void,  
 O'er the dim fragments cast a lunar light, ‡  
 And say, "Here was, or is," where all is doubly night?

3. Alas the lofty city! and alas  
 The trebly-hundred triumphs! and the day  
 When Brutus § made the dagger's edge surpass  
 The conqueror's || sword in bearing fame away!  
 Alas for Tully's ¶ voice, and Virgil's \*\* lay,  
 And Livy's †† pictured page! But these shall be  
 Her resurrection; all beside—decay.

\* Among the Romans hostile peoples, and especially German tribes, were known as barbarians.

† See page 196.

‡ A light such as that cast by the moon (Lat. *luna*)—that is, not a clear, penetrating light in which everything stands revealed.

§ Marcus Junius Brutus was one of the conspirators who, in 44 B.C., murdered Julius Caesar. He is now best remembered by this deed, which is described by Shakespeare in his *Julius Caesar*.

|| Julius Caesar, the founder of the Roman Empire.

¶ Marcus Tullius Cicero (Tully), the greatest orator and man of letters, produced by ancient Rome.

\*\* Publius Vergilius Maro (Virgil), the greatest of Roman poets.

†† Titus Livius, a famous historian of Rome.

Alas for Earth ! for never shall we see  
That brightness in her eye she bore when Rome was free.\*

4. I see before me the gladiator † lie :  
He leans upon his hand ; his manly brow  
Consents to death, but conquers agony ;  
And his drooped head sinks gradually low ;  
And through his side the last drops, ebbing slow  
From the red gash, fall heavy, one by one,  
Like the first of a thunder-shower ; and now  
The arena ‡ swims around him—he is gone,  
Ere ceased the inhuman shout which hailed the wretch  
who won.

5. A ruin—yet what ruin ! from its mass  
Walls, palaces, half-cities, have been reared ;  
Yet oft the enormous skeleton ye pass,  
And marvel where the spoil could have appeared—  
Hath it indeed been plundered, or but cleared ?  
Alas ! developed, opens the decay,  
When the colossal fabric's form is neared :  
It will not bear the brightness of the day,  
Which streams too much on all years, man, have reft away.

\* This refers to the time when the Roman Empire was at its greatest splendour, about the beginning of the second century A.D. After this date the empire gradually declined. Rome was for a short time under the rule of the Goths, and was finally annexed to Italy in 1870.

† A hired and trained fighter who fought, sometimes to the death, with other gladiators or wild animals “to make a Roman holiday.”

‡ That part of the Roman amphitheatre or circus in which public combats of gladiators or wild beasts took place. It was so called because covered with sand.

6. "While stands the Coliseum, Rome shall stand;  
 When falls the Coliseum, Rome shall fall;  
 And when Rome falls—the world." From our own land  
 Thus spake the pilgrims o'er this mighty wall  
 In Saxon times, which we are wont to call  
 Ancient; and these three mortal things are still  
 On their foundations, and unaltered all;  
 Rome and her Ruin past Redemption's\* skill,  
 The World, the same wide den—of thieves, or what ye  
 will.
- 

## 2. EXTRACTS FROM "THE TRAVELLER."

By OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

*[Oliver Goldsmith, the Irish poet, after leaving Trinity College, Dublin, in 1749, spent some two years in Edinburgh studying medicine, drifted to Leyden in Holland, and set out to make the "grand tour" on foot. The poem was written in 1764, and its publication raised him to a foremost place amongst the minstrels of the day.]*

1. Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,  
 Or by the lazy Schelt† or wandering Po;‡  
 Or onward where the rude Carinthian§ boor||  
 Against the houseless stranger shuts the door;

\* Nearly all the splendid buildings of ancient Rome are now in ruins, and the former glory of the city can never be restored. For the new Rome that has arisen, see page 201.

† See page 114.

‡ See page 191.

§ Carinthia is a crown land and duchy of Austria, which lies to the east of Tyrol.

|| Peasant.

Or where Campania's\* plain forsaken lies,  
 A dreary waste expanding to the skies—  
 Where'er I roam, whatever realms to see,  
 My heart untravelled fondly turns to thee;  
 Still to my brother turns with ceaseless pain,  
 And drags at each remove a lengthening chain.

2. Far to the right where Apennine ascends,  
 Bright as the summer, ITALY extends;  
 Its uplands sloping deck the mountain's side,  
 Woods over woods in gay theatric pride;  
 While oft some temple's mouldering tops between  
 With venerable grandeur mark the scene.
  
3. Could Nature's bounty satisfy the breast,  
 The sons of Italy were surely blest.  
 Whatever fruits in different climes were found,  
 That proudly rise, or humbly court the ground;  
 Whatever blooms in torrid tracts appear,  
 Whose bright succession decks the varied year;  
 Whatever sweets salute the northern sky  
 With vernal † lives, that blossom but to die—  
 These here disporting own the kindred soil,  
 Nor ask luxuriance from the planter's toil;  
 While sea-born gales their gelid ‡ wings expand  
 To winnow fragrance round the smiling land.

[*The poem goes on to lament the low and mean condition of  
 Italians in Goldsmith's time.*]

\* See page 193.

† Green.

‡ Cold or icy.



4. My soul, turn from them, turn we to survey  
 Where rougher climes a nobler race display,  
 Where the bleak Swiss their stormy mansions tread,  
 And force a churlish soil for scanty bread ;  
 No product here the barren hills afford,  
 But man and steel, the soldier and his sword.  
 No vernal \* blooms the torpid † rocks array,  
 But winter lingering chills the lap of May ;  
 No zephyr ‡ fondly sues the mountain's breast,  
 But meteors § glare, and stormy clouds invest. ||
5. To kinder skies, where gentler manners reign,  
 I turn ; and FRANCE displays her bright domain.  
 Gay sprightly land of mirth and social ease,  
 Pleased with thyself, whom all the world can please,  
 How often have I led thy sportive choir,  
 With tuneless pipe, ¶ beside the murmuring Loire ! \*\*  
 Where shading elms along the margin grew,  
 And, freshened from the wave, the zephyr flew ;

\* Spring.

† Barren : the poet means that there are no flowers to take away the dull, lifeless appearance of the rocks.

‡ Properly denotes the west wind, but is used poetically for any soft, gentle breeze.

§ Small bodies moving in space. Some of them are encountered by the earth as it moves in its orbit, and then the resistance which the atmosphere of the earth offers to their motion makes them become luminous ; hence they are sometimes called "shooting stars."

|| Surround.

¶ A wind musical instrument, consisting of a tube of wood or metal. It here means Goldsmith's flute, by means of which he maintained himself on his travels.

\*\* See page 49.

And haply, though my harsh touch, faltering still,  
 But mocked all time and marred the dancers' skill,  
 Yet would the village praise my wondrous power,  
 And dance, forgetful of the noontide hour.

6. To men of other minds my fancy flies  
 Embosomed in the deep where HOLLAND lies ;  
 Methinks her patient sons before me stand,  
 Where the broad ocean leans against the land,  
 And, sedulous \* to stop the coming tide,  
 Lift the tall rampire's † artificial pride.  
 Onward, methinks, and diligently slow,  
 The firm-connected bulwark seems to grow ;  
 Spreads its long arms amidst the watery roar,  
 Scoops out an empire, and usurps the shore  
 While the pent ocean, rising o'er the pile,  
 Sees an amphibious ‡ world beneath him smile ;  
 The slow canal, the yellow-blossomed vale,  
 The willow-tufted bank, the gliding sail,  
 The crowded mart, the cultivated plain,  
 A new creation rescued from his reign.

\* Diligent.

† An old variation of the word *rampart*. The reference here is to the dikes of Holland (see page 103).

‡ The word *amphibious* really signifies living both on land and in water. Goldsmith in this passage directs attention to the fact that what is now dry land was formerly under the sea.

## EXERCISES ON THE LESSONS.

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*(To be worked under the direction of the teacher.)*

### LESSON 1.

1. Make a rectangle  $5\frac{1}{2}$ " by 5". This represents the land surface of the earth. Divide the oblong into 110 parts. Shade  $7\frac{1}{2}$  of these parts, and this will show you what proportion the land of Europe bears to the land of the whole earth.

2. According to the method given on page 185, Book III., estimate the area of Europe, excluding Spitsbergen and Iceland. Use the map between pages 10 and 11. Compare your estimate with the actual area (about 3,700,000 sq. miles).

3. Draw two squares, one with each side  $\frac{7}{16}$ " long, and the other with each side  $3\frac{4}{5}$ " long. The smaller one represents roughly the area of the British Isles, and the larger one the area of Europe on the same scale.

4. Write out a list of all the great men of whom you have heard or read. Mark those of European birth.

5. From the map between pages 10 and 11 find the distance (roughly) between Nordkyn (Norway) and Cape Tarifa (Spain). The result will give you the extreme length of Europe from north to south. Also find the extreme breadth of Europe—that is, from Cape Roca (Portugal) to the Urals.

### LESSON 2.

1. From the map between pages 10 and 11 compare the depths of the northern seas of Europe (White Sea, Baltic Sea, North Sea) with the depths of the southern seas (Caspian Sea, Black Sea, Mediterranean Sea). Note, 1 fathom = 6 feet.

2. Find out the greatest length and breadth of the above seas.

3. Find in Europe a place which is more than 500 miles from salt water.

4. Suppose a man can ride 80 miles a day on a bicycle, how long will it take him to ride from the following places to the nearest seacoast: (a) Paris, (b) Madrid, (c) Berlin, (d) Moscow?

5. Take north latitudes  $60^\circ$ ,  $55^\circ$ ,  $50^\circ$ , and  $45^\circ$ , and, going from west to east, make a list of all important towns on or near each line.

### LESSON 3.

1. Suppose the sea-level were to rise 600 feet, what country of Europe would have the greater part of its surface under water? What country would have a small part of its surface under water? What country would have none at all?

2. Make a series of thick lines showing the highland region which cuts right across Southern Europe.

3. Draw vertical lines to represent the heights of the following mountains of Europe: Elbruz (the highest point of the Caucasus and of Europe),  $9\frac{1}{4}$ "; Mont Blanc (the highest peak of the Alps),  $7\frac{9}{10}$ "; Mulhacen (the highest summit in the Iberian Peninsula),  $5\frac{7}{10}$ "; Aneto (the highest peak in the Pyrenees),  $5\frac{3}{8}$ "; Zugspitze (the highest mountain of Germany),  $4\frac{9}{10}$ "; Galdhöpigen (the highest peak of Scandinavia),  $4\frac{1}{8}$ "; and Ben Nevis (the culminating point of the British Isles),  $2\frac{1}{8}$ ". Taking one inch to represent 2,000 feet, what is the height, roughly speaking, of each of these mountains?

4. Compare the areas of the following countries by drawing squares as follows:—For the British Isles the side of the square must be  $1\frac{7}{10}$ " long; for France,  $2\frac{1}{10}$ "; for Belgium,  $\frac{1}{2}$ "; for Austria-Hungary,  $2\frac{2}{5}$ "; and for Russia,  $6\frac{4}{5}$ ".

### LESSON 4.

1. The Lake of Geneva is growing shallower every year. Why? Account for the delta at the mouth of the Rhone.

2. Why is a swift-flowing river less useful than a slow-flowing river? What use can be made of a rapid river?

3. Draw a sketch map of the Rhine, marking its chief tributaries and the chief towns on its banks.

4. Roughly speaking, the length of the Rhone is 500 miles, and that of the Rhine 800 miles. Compare their lengths by means of two horizontal lines.

### LESSON 5.

1. Make a sketch map of the Danube, showing its chief tributaries and the chief towns on its banks.

2. Compare the Rhone, the Rhine, and the Danube as highroads of trade.

3. Draw a line 1" long to represent the length of the Thames, a second line  $2\frac{1}{2}$ " to represent the Rhone, a third  $2\frac{4}{5}$ " for the Oder, a fourth  $3\frac{3}{5}$ " for the Elbe, a fifth 4" for the Rhine, a sixth  $8\frac{7}{10}$ " for the Danube, and a seventh  $11\frac{1}{2}$ " for



the Volga. If every inch of these lines represents about 200 miles, what is the length, roughly speaking, of each of the rivers mentioned?

4. Why is the Volga the longest river of Europe?

### LESSON 6.

1. The following places have nearly the same latitude: Valentia in the south-west of Ireland, Posen in Germany, and Orenburg in Russia. Other things being equal, they ought to have the same climate. In January the average temperature of the three places is as follows: Valentia,  $42^{\circ}$  F.; Posen,  $27^{\circ}$  F.; Orenburg,  $4^{\circ}$  F. Account for this difference of winter temperature.

2. In July the average temperature at the three places is as follows: Valentia,  $59^{\circ}$  F.; Posen,  $65^{\circ}$  F.; and Orenburg,  $71^{\circ}$  F. Account for this difference of summer temperature.



3. Study this map. Find out the wettest and driest parts of (a) the Northern region, (b) the Western or Atlantic region, (c) the Eastern region, (d) the Mediterranean region. Why has Russia such a low mean, or average, annual rainfall?

## LESSON 7.

1. What routes are there from London to the Continent? Which should you prefer, and why? Draw a rough map to illustrate your answer.

2. Which is the shortest route between London and Paris? The fastest train of the day leaves London *via* Folkstone and Boulogne at 2.20 p.m., and arrives in Paris at 9.16 p.m. How many miles an hour do the passengers by this route travel on the average?



3. Copy this little drawing of a lock on a river or canal. Why are locks necessary?

4. Paris is encircled by strong fortifications; London is not. Why not?

## LESSON 8.

1. The following are the chief capitals of Europe, with their approximate populations. Make a graph comparing them as to population.

Greater London	.	.	.	.	7,300,000
Paris	.	.	.	.	2,900,000
Berlin	.	.	.	.	2,100,000
Vienna	.	.	.	.	2,000,000
St. Petersburg	.	.	.	.	1,900,000
Moscow	.	.	.	.	1,500,000
Constantinople	.	.	.	.	1,200,000

2. Find out the meaning of the following French words: *rue, Notre-Dame, boulevard, Gare du Nord, jardin, maison, voiture.*

3. The monument to Strassburg in the Place de la Concorde is always draped in black, and has a mourning wreath upon it. Why?

4. Why does France need a larger army than we do?

## LESSON 9.

1. What hilly country would you have to cross in travelling from Brest to Marseilles?

2. What differences may be observed between North France and South France?

3. Draw a sketch map of France, and mark on it all the places mentioned in this lesson.

4. Describe the coloured picture on page 48.

## LESSON 10.

1. The following are the largest towns of France, with their approximate populations :—

Paris . . . . .	2,900,000	Bordeaux . . . . .	260,000
Marseilles . . . . .	550,000	Lille . . . . .	220,000
Lyons . . . . .	525,000		

Make a graph, comparing these towns as to population.

2. What articles would you expect to form the exports and imports of (a) Havre, (b) Rouen, (c) Nantes?
3. Describe the picture on page 58.

## LESSON 11.

1. What articles would you expect to form the exports and imports of Marseilles?

2. Make a diagram to show the following facts about the approximate annual value of some exports of France :—

Wool and woollen goods . . . . .	£21,000,000
Silk and silk goods . . . . .	20,000,000
Cotton goods . . . . .	13,000,000
Fancy goods and millinery . . . . .	12,000,000
Wine . . . . .	9,000,000
Clothes and linen . . . . .	6,000,000

3. Account for the importance of Lyons, St. Etienne, Paris, and Lille.
4. Why are there more fortified towns along the border of Belgium and Germany than along the borders of Spain and Italy?

## LESSON 12.

1. The population of the British Isles is 45 millions; that of France is 40 millions. The number of people living in towns in the British Isles is 33 millions; the number of people living in towns in France is about 16½ millions. What do you learn from these facts?

2. The area of the British Isles is about 121,000 square miles; that of France is 207,000 square miles. Draw two squares, one to represent a square mile of the British Isles, the other to represent a square mile of France. Inside one square write the number of people to the square mile in the British Isles, and inside the other square the number of people to the square mile in France.

3. What qualities do you most admire in the French people?
4. Why is the French language so widely known and spoken?

## LESSON 13.

1. The area of Switzerland is 16,000 square miles, while that of the British Isles is 121,000 square miles. Compare the areas of these countries by means of a diagram.

2. The population of Switzerland is about  $3\frac{3}{4}$  millions, while that of the British Isles is 45 millions. Compare the two countries as to population by means of a diagram.

3. Study the following railway routes across the Alps: (a) *Mont Cenis*—from Mâcon, France, up the valley of the Arc (tributary of the Isère, tributary of the Rhone), through the Mont Cenis Tunnel ( $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles) to Turin. (b) *Simplon*—from Geneva up the Rhone valley, through the Simplon Tunnel (over 12 miles), down to Lake Maggiore, thence to Milan. (c) *St. Gotthard*—from Lucerne up the Reuss valley, through Mont St. Gotthard Tunnel (over 9 miles), thence to Milan by the Ticino valley.

4. What advantages and disadvantages has Switzerland as a manufacturing country?

## LESSON 14.

1. Construct a diagram showing the approximate annual values of the following exports of Switzerland:—

Silk and silk goods	.	.	.	.	.	£11,000,000
Cotton goods	.	.	.	.	.	10,000,000
Watches and clocks	.	.	.	.	.	5,000,000
Machinery and vehicles	.	.	.	.	.	3,000,000
Cheese	.	.	.	.	.	2,500,000
Drugs, chemicals, and colours	.	.	.	.	.	2,000,000
Chocolate	.	.	.	.	.	1,500,000
Condensed milk	.	.	.	.	.	1,200,000

2. Describe the mountaineering picture on page 77.

3. What three sights in Switzerland do you specially wish to see?

4. Why has Switzerland been permitted to remain independent?

## LESSON 15.

1. The area of the German Empire is 209,000 square miles, that of the British Isles 121,000 square miles. Compare these areas by means of a diagram.

2. The population of Germany is 65 millions, while that of the British Isles is 45 millions. Compare the two countries as to population by means of a diagram.

3. Find out the meaning of the following German words: *Haff*, *Gebirge*, *Wald*, *Strasse*, *Stadt*, *schön*.

4. Why has Germany to support so huge an army?



## LESSON 16.

1. Of what use is Heligoland to Germany?
2. Describe the course of the Elbe. Why is the river so important?
3. Account for the importance of Hamburg and Berlin.
4. By what routes can German warships sail from the Baltic to the North Sea?

## LESSON 17.

1. Study the following railway route from Germany across the Alps: *Brenner*—from Munich up the Inn valley to Innsbruck, thence beneath the Brenner Pass, by means of thirty tunnels, to the Adige valley. The Brenner Pass (4,500 feet) was the great trade route from Venice to the north in the Middle Ages.

2. Why are old manners, customs, and legends well preserved in forest regions?

3. Describe the coloured picture on page 85.

4. What part of Germany was taken from France as a result of the war of 1870-1871?

## LESSON 18.

1. Construct a diagram to show the relative annual value of the following German exports:—

Iron and steel goods . . . . .	£42,000,000
Machinery . . . . .	23,000,000
Cotton goods . . . . .	18,000,000
Coal . . . . .	16,000,000
Leather and leather goods . . . . .	13,000,000
Woollen goods . . . . .	13,000,000
Sugar . . . . .	10,000,000
Silk goods . . . . .	9,000,000
Copper and copper goods . . . . .	8,000,000

2. What qualities do you most admire in the Germans?

3. Account for Germany's great progress in trade and manufactures since 1871.

4. To what cities of Germany would you go to buy china, toys, books, beet sugar, chemicals, and big guns?

## LESSON 19.

1. The area of Holland is 12,600 square miles, while that of the British Isles is 121,000 square miles. Show by means of a diagram the relative areas of the two countries.

2. The population of Holland is nearly 6 millions, while that of the British Isles is 45 millions. By means of a diagram compare the two countries as to population.

3. Why do the Dutch maintain a special department of state to supervise the works of defence against water?

4. In what three ways do the Dutch reclaim land?

### LESSON 20.

1. Why is Rotterdam such a flourishing seaport?

2. Construct a diagram to show the relative annual value of the following Dutch exports:—

Cereals and flour . . . . .	£31,000,000
Iron and steel goods . . . . .	22,000,000
Copper . . . . .	13,000,000
Textiles . . . . .	10,000,000
Rice . . . . .	5,000,000
Sugar . . . . .	4,500,000
Margarine . . . . .	4,000,000

3. Describe the Dutch village represented on page 107, and the Dutch children on page 111.

4. What special advantages has Holland as a dairy-farming country?

### LESSON 21.

1. The area of Belgium is 11,400 square miles. Compare it by means of a diagram with the area of Holland.

2. The population of Belgium is  $7\frac{1}{2}$  millions. Compare the density of the population (number of people to the square mile) in the British Isles with that of Belgium. Account for the density of population in so small a country.

3. Why is Antwerp such a large seaport? It has a larger trade in rubber than any other European seaport. Can you account for this?

4. Construct a diagram to illustrate the relative annual value of the following exports from Belgium:—

Wool . . . . .	£14,000,000
Rubber . . . . .	5,000,000
Wheat . . . . .	5,000,000
Flax . . . . .	4,800,000
Rail and tram cars . . . . .	4,500,000
Diamonds . . . . .	4,000,000
Zinc . . . . .	3,500,000

5. Why is Belgium called the "Cockpit of Europe"? Explain why the great battle in which Napoleon was overthrown was fought in the rolling country between Brussels and the Meuse.

### LESSON 22.

1. In what way are the coasts of Holland and Denmark similar? Why can large ships enter Holland from the sea, and not Denmark?

2. Compare by means of diagrams the area and population of Denmark (area, 15,000 square miles; population,  $2\frac{3}{4}$  millions) with the area and population of the British Isles.

3. Illustrate by a diagram the relative annual value of the following exports from Denmark :—

Meat and provisions	.	.	.	.	.	£20,000,000
Living animals	.	.	.	.	.	2,500,000
Hides, skins, and manure	.	.	.	.	.	900,000
Grain	.	.	.	.	.	700,000
Metals.	.	.	.	.	.	400,000

4. Why have the Danes been so successful in dairy-farming?

5. Explain Nelson's statement: "The brave Danes are the brothers, and should never be the enemies, of the British."

### LESSON 23.

1. With what part of the British Isles may Norway be compared?

2. Compare by means of diagrams the area and population of Norway (area, 124,000 square miles; population, 2,400,000) with the area and population of the British Isles. Why has Norway a comparatively small population?

3. Explain what is meant by the "Midnight Sun."

4. Compare by means of a diagram the relative annual value of the following exports from Norway :—

Animal produce	.	.	.	.	.	£5,000,000
Timber and wooden goods	.	.	.	.	.	4,500,000
Paper and paper manufactures	.	.	.	.	.	2,200,000
Minerals	.	.	.	.	.	1,300,000
Hair, skins, etc.	.	.	.	.	.	1,000,000

### LESSON 24.

1. Compare by means of diagrams the area and population of Sweden (area, 173,000 square miles; population,  $5\frac{1}{2}$  millions) with the area and population of the British Isles.

2. Why are parts of the Baltic Sea frozen during winter, while ice is never seen off the coasts of our islands?
3. Stockholm has been called the "Venice of the North." Why?
4. By means of a diagram show the relative annual value of the following exports from Sweden :—

Wood . . . . .	£14,000,000
Live animals and animal food . . . . .	4,000,000
Metal goods and machinery . . . . .	3,500,000
Metals . . . . .	3,000,000
Minerals . . . . .	3,000,000

### LESSON 25.

1. By means of diagrams compare the area of Russia (area, 2,000,000 square miles) with that of Europe ; also the population of Russia (136 millions) with those of France, Germany, and the British Isles.
2. When railway engineers asked the Tsar of Russia what route the railway from St. Petersburg to Moscow should take, he ruled a straight line on the map from one town to the other. Why was it possible for the railway to be made in this way?
3. Compare the climate of Russia with that of the British Isles.
4. Describe the coloured picture on page 141.

### LESSON 26.

1. Say what you know about the Russian peasant.
2. Describe the coloured picture on page 144.
3. Why do the Russians build their houses of wood and not of brick and stone?
4. What evidences can you still see in Russia that the people are of Eastern origin?

### LESSON 27.

1. What great drawback has Russia in regard to foreign trade? Explain why Russia covets Constantinople, and why she has built ports on the Pacific Ocean.
2. Peter the Great, who founded St. Petersburg, called it "the Tsar's window looking out into Europe." Explain what he meant by this, and point out what advantages St. Petersburg has over the old capital, Moscow.
3. What cargoes would you expect ships to carry from (a) Archangel, (b) Riga, (c) Helsingfors, (d) Odessa?



4. By means of a diagram show the relative annual value of the following Russian exports :—

Corn, flour, buckwheat, etc. . . . .	£74,000,000
Timber and wooden goods . . . . .	13,000,000
Flax . . . . .	7,000,000
Eggs . . . . .	6,000,000
Dairy produce . . . . .	5,000,000
Furs and leather . . . . .	3,000,000
Naphtha and naphtha oils . . . . .	3,000,000

### LESSON 28.

1. Compare by means of a diagram the area and population of Austria-Hungary (area, 243,000 square miles ; population, 49 millions) with the area and population of the British Isles.

2. Describe the coloured picture on page 153. The mountains in the background are called “Dolomites.”

3. What drawbacks has Austria in regard to foreign trade? What is the great highroad of trade in Austria?

4. What do you know of the Carpathians?

### LESSON 29.

1. Hungary is “a land of infinite variety.” Explain this statement.

2. What do you know of the Magyars?

3. Where in Austria-Hungary do we find coal, iron, petroleum, wheat, salt, and wine chiefly produced?

4. Construct a diagram showing the relative annual values of the following exports from Austria-Hungary :—

Wood and wooden goods . . . . .	£13,000,000
Sugar . . . . .	10,000,000
Eggs . . . . .	4,500,000
Lignite . . . . .	3,200,000
Glass and glassware . . . . .	3,000,000
Woollen goods . . . . .	2,800,000
Cattle . . . . .	2,000,000
Malt . . . . .	2,000,000

### LESSON 30.

1. Compare by means of diagrams the area and population of Turkey in Europe before the war of 1912-13 (area, 65,000 square miles ; population, 6,000,000) with the area and population of the British Isles.

2. Trace on the map the route of the Orient Express from London to Constantinople. The following is an extract from the time-table :—

London (Charing Cross)	dep.	10.0	a.m.	Monday
Folkestone	"	11.55	"	"
Boulogne	"	2.12	p.m.	"
Paris (Nord)	arr.	5.20	"	"
" (Est)	dep.	7.13	"	"
Châlons	arr.	9.41	"	"
Strassburg	"	3.38	a.m.	Tuesday
Stuttgart	"	6.40	"	"
Munich	"	10.16	"	"
"	dep.	10.28	"	"
Salzburg	arr.	12.45	p.m.	"
Vienna (West)	"	5.57	"	"
" (Staats)	dep.	6.51	"	"
Budapest	arr.	11.5	"	"
Belgrade	"	5.58	a.m.	Wednesday
"	dep.	6.13	"	"
Nish	arr.	11.22	"	"
Sofia	"	4.25	p.m.	"
Adrianople	"	1.56	a.m.	Thursday
Constantinople	"	10.17	"	"

Measure the distance along this route from London to Constantinople and find the average rate of travel per mile.

3. State some of the results of the Balkan War of 1912-13.

4. Explain why Constantinople "ought to be both rich and powerful."

### LESSON 31.

1. Note the following facts about the Balkan States before the war of 1912-13 :

	Area in sq. mls.	Population.
Montenegro . . . . .	4,000	250,000
Servia . . . . .	19,000	2,900,000
Bulgaria . . . . .	38,000	4,300,000
Roumania . . . . .	51,000	7,000,000

By means of diagrams compare these states as to area and population; also compare the area and population of the Balkan States as *a whole* with the area and population of the British Isles.

2. What kind of rule has Turkey exercised in the past over the Christian peoples of the Balkan Peninsula?

3. Which of the Balkan States has the best situated capital? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Why are Bulgaria's river ports on the Danube fortified?

### LESSON 32.

1. Compare by means of diagrams the area and population of Greece in 1912 (area, 25,000 square miles; population, 2,600,000) with the area and population of Scotland (area, 30,000 square miles; population, 4,800,000).

2. What do you mean by the word "classical"? Name any classical Greek writers of whom you have heard or read.

3. Write from dictation the following paragraph: "The large island of Crete, in the Mediterranean Sea, is the most southerly portion of Europe. Its area is 3,400 square miles. For the most part it is mountainous, its loftiest peak being the Mount Ida of the ancients. There are many small fertile valleys and numerous springs. In the days of Homer, Crete boasted a hundred cities; now it has only three of any importance, the chief being Canea. During recent years remains of a civilization as old as that of Babylon or Egypt have been unearthed. Crete was for some time governed by a Greek Commissioner, even when it was still considered to belong to Turkey. It was ceded to Greece in 1913, and has a population of about 340,000."

4. Show in graphic form the relative annual value of the following exports of Greece:—

Agricultural products (chiefly currants)	.	.	£2,500,000
Minerals	.	.	1,000,000
Oils (olive, etc.)	.	.	760,000
Wines, etc.	.	.	740,000

### LESSON 33.

1. Compare by means of a diagram the area and population of Italy (area, 111,000 square miles; population, 35,000,000) with the area and population of the British Isles.

2. Why is the navy of Italy stronger than its army?
3. Name the chief places in Europe associated with Christopher Columbus.
4. Explain why the railway from Genoa to Rome skirts the west coast of Italy.

### LESSON 34.

1. Explain why the Romans of old became "masters of all the then known world."

2. Write out a list of the great Romans of whom you have heard or read.

3. What sights in Rome do you specially wish to see?
4. Give the reasons why Rome is still famous.

## LESSON 35.

1. Compare Rome with Berlin, and Naples with Genoa.
2. Can you account for the volcanoes of Vesuvius, Stromboli (a small island of the Lipari group, about 45 miles north-north-west of Messina), and Etna being where they are? Your reasons will also explain the earthquakes which have devastated Messina and the surrounding country.
3. Find out what the following Italian words mean: *Via, villa, monte, citta, castel, nuovo, vecchia, ponte.*
4. Which city of Italy do you specially wish to visit, and why?

## LESSON 36.

1. Show by means of a diagram the comparative annual value of the following Italian exports:—

Raw silk	.	.	.	.	.	.	£17,000,000
Cotton goods	.	.	.	.	.	.	4,500,000
Silk goods	.	.	.	.	.	.	4,000,000
Olive oil	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,500,000
Wines	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,500,000
Cheese	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,200,000
Dried Fruits	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,200,000

2. Account for the origin and growth of Venice.
3. Why is the basin of the Po so fertile?
4. Compare Rome with Milan.
5. Describe the coloured pictures on page 197 and page 200.

## LESSON 37.

1. Compare by means of a diagram the area and population of the Iberian Peninsula (area—Spain, 192,000 square miles; Portugal, 34,000 square miles; population—Spain, 19,000,000; Portugal, 5,500,000) with the area and population of the British Isles. Also in the same way compare Spain with Portugal.
2. Is there any reason why the Alps should be pierced by four tunnels, and that the Pyrenees should not be tunnelled at all?
3. Explain and illustrate the saying, "Africa begins at the Pyrenees."
4. Find out the meaning of the following Spanish terms: *Ciudad, sierra, villa, guad, real, siesta.*



## LESSON 38.

1. Of what value is Gibraltar to us?
2. From what places do we derive the words "port" and "sherry"?
3. Compare the position of Madrid with that of other European capitals. What city would be more suitable as the capital of Spain?
4. By means of a diagram show the comparative annual value of the following Spanish exports:—

Iron ore	.	.	.	.	.	.	£4,000,000
Copper	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,800,000
Lead	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,800,000
Cotton goods	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,300,000
Wine	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,300,000
Oranges	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,000,000
Cork	.	.	.	.	.	.	1,200,000
Olive oil	.	.	.	.	.	.	1,000,000

## LESSON 39.

1. Why are there so many Moorish remains in Spain?
2. Compare Russia with Spain.
3. Why did Spain and Portugal become great sea powers?
4. The chief rulers of the most important European countries are called by one of the following names: King, Emperor, Kaiser, Tsar, Sultan, President. Make a list of the chief countries of Europe, and against each of them write what its chief ruler is called.

## LESSON 40.

1. Why has Scotland never been really conquered?
2. How could you reach Glasgow or Edinburgh from your own town?
3. Describe the appearance of Scotland if the sea-level were to rise 600 feet.
4. What do you know of the Tweed?
5. Find out the meaning of the following terms: *Aber, ben, gair or gare, inver, blair, law, drum, ross, ard or aird.*

## LESSON 41.

1. Estimate roughly the area of (a) the Southern Uplands, (b) the Lowlands, (c) the Highlands. What do you estimate the area of Scotland to be? Compare by means of a diagram its area and population (area, 30,400 square miles; population,  $4\frac{3}{4}$  millions) with the area and population of (a) England and Wales, (b) the British Isles.

2. Lanarkshire contains nearly one-third of the population of Scotland. Explain this.

3. What is the nucleus of Edinburgh? Can you name other Scottish towns which grew up round fortresses?

4. "Forth bridles the wild Highlander." Explain this statement.

5. Compare Edinburgh with Glasgow.

6. The following figures give you the tonnage of the ships built in various countries or places in one year :—

The Clyde . . . . .	375,000 tons.
The Tyne . . . . .	230,000 „
Sunderland . . . . .	180,000 „
Belfast . . . . .	160,000 „
In Germany . . . . .	270,000 „
In the United States . . . . .	257,000 „

Compare these by means of diagrams.

### LESSON 42.

1. Compare the Southern Uplands with the Highlands.

2. Compare the west coast of Scotland with (a) the east coast of Scotland, and (b) the coast of Norway.

3. Describe a voyage along the Caledonian Canal.

4. Why are the Highlands so thinly populated?

5. By means of diagrams compare the populations of the following towns :—

Glasgow . . . . .	785,000
Edinburgh . . . . .	320,000
Dundee . . . . .	165,000
Aberdeen . . . . .	163,000
Perth . . . . .	36,000
Inverness . . . . .	22,000

### LESSON 43.

1. Estimate the area of Ireland, and compare it by means of diagrams with the area of (a) Scotland, (b) the British Isles.

2. Why is so much of Central Ireland boggy?

3. Ireland is chiefly an agricultural country. Explain why.

4. Account for the lakes in the course of the Shannon.

5. Describe the pictures on page 246.

6. How was the Giant's Causeway formed?

7. In the year 1912 Ireland had some four million sheep and nearly five million cattle, while Scotland had seven million sheep and over one million cattle. Can you explain these figures?

8. Why is Ireland called the "Emerald Isle"?

## LESSON 44.

1. Compare Belfast as a port with Glasgow.

2. What are the chief industries of Ulster? Account for them.

3. The following figures give you the population of Ireland at various periods. Exhibit the variations of the population by means of a diagram.

1801 . . . . .	5,400,000
1841 . . . . .	8,100,000
1851 . . . . .	6,500,000
1871 . . . . .	5,400,000
1891 . . . . .	4,700,000
1911 . . . . .	4,400,000

4. Why are there no large inland towns in Ireland?

5. By means of diagrams compare the population of the following towns:—

Dublin and suburbs . . . . .	400,000
Belfast . . . . .	385,000
Cork . . . . .	76,000
Londonderry . . . . .	41,000
Limerick . . . . .	38,000
Waterford . . . . .	27,000

6. Find out the meaning of the following terms: *Slieve*, *bal* or *bally carrick* or *carrig*, *kil*, *don* or *dun*, and *rath*.

7. What are the chief routes between Great Britain and Ireland? By measurement on your map find the length of each. Represent these lengths by straight lines drawn side by side to a scale of one inch to twenty miles.

THE END.









